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Gendered Approach To Managing Change in Organisations: Differences In The Way Men and Women Manage Organisational Change In Abuja, Nigeria

By

Jennifer Tarinabo Okolai

March 2017



***A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the
University's requirements for the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy (Ph.D)***

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STATEMENT OF AUTHORSHIP

I certify that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted in any form for award of a higher degree elsewhere. Moreover, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis. I also confirm that this research has been conducted in adherence to Coventry University's research ethics policy. Preliminary literature findings were submitted and published in conference proceedings of the University Forum Human Resource Development Conference (UFHRD) 2013, 2016 Coventry University FBL internal Conference and 2016 Joint Congress of IIAS-IASIA in Chengdu, China as a doctoral working paper.

Signed: Jennifer Tarinabo Okolai

Date: 22nd March 2017

ABSTRACT

Examining the impact of gender leadership differences on organisational change management outcomes in Nigeria, Africa was one of the main aims of this study. Existing literature reports that only one third (30 per cent) of change programmes in organisations meet the desired outcomes, thereby leaving 70 per cent of organisational change programmes failing to achieve anticipated expectations. Some scholars (e.g., Paton and Dempster, 2002) report that the gendered aspect of organisational change management has been largely ignored, and may be one of the contributing factors to organisational change programmes not meeting desired outcomes. Given the increasing rate of change implementations in organisations and the reported failure rate, this study reviews the current trends, strategies and approaches adopted by change leaders. Furthermore, it examines men and women's differences in their approach to organisational change management in Nigeria, and the impact that this might have on organisational change management outcomes. This research was undertaken in order to identify and recommend strategies that will assist with successfully managing change programmes in organisations.

Qualitative research methods through the use of 40 semi-structured interviews were conducted in five organisations (one federal medical health centre, two banking organisations and two government parastatal/ministries). Analytical tools including inductive content analysis, descriptive data analysis, thematic template and cross-case analysis were used to analyse the obtained data. The results show that there may be some differences in the way that men and women approach and manage change scenarios in organisations, which may have some potential impacts on OCM outcomes. However, certain factors appear to affect the observed leadership behaviour and adopted styles. Firstly, leaders' behaviour and choice of leadership style is influenced by national and sector culture, therefore some of the leaders are unable to adopt their preferred way of approaching and managing the implemented changes as they have to conform to organisational set principles in managing the change programmes. Secondly, the results further show that leaders' leadership behaviour and style is influenced by the gender and behaviour of the followers. Thirdly, gender leadership differences emerge as a result of leaders' age and personality, and not necessarily because of their gender or sex.

In summary, both men and women may bring intrinsic benefits to the management of organisational change programmes, and these may have a significant and positive impact on the outcome of organisational change programmes. This is based on the perspective of the larger sample of this study's respondents and some existing views in the literature. This study suggests a gender-inclusive methodology developed from the empirical findings of this study and existing literature, which provides comprehensive guideline on how organisational change programmes can be approached and managed from a more gender-inclusive perspective. The results from the present study raise many interesting issues for both the academic community and practising managers and agents. This is the first study of its kind that has looked at the impact of gender leadership differences on organisational change management outcome in developing countries like Nigeria.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the Almighty God and my amazing father, Late Engr. Otonbara Robert Okolai, for your indescribable and immeasurable love towards the accomplishment of my success in Life, You are indeed a very rare Gem of all time. Also, to my reliable and dependable mothers; Atonbara Joyce Ombu and Dinanga Gladys Okolai, and my siblings; Otariyatimi Jackson Okolai, Ebitimi John Okolai, Ekiprete Eric Okolai, Alfred Otonbara Okolai and Bomo Praise Okolai. And of course to my future amazing husband and unborn children. I love you all!

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1 CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

It is important to establish a rationale for every study. This is because it serves as a reference point against which research outcomes are assessed and achieved. This chapter presents the research background, the significance of the study and the research aim(s) and objective(s). It further presents the research problems, and the deficits or gaps in previous research in this subject area.

In addition, this section illustrates in brief the methodological approach adopted for the research – with a justification of the appropriateness of the chosen methodologies. It culminates with an overview of the entire structure of this thesis.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Managing organisational change is a paramount skill in modern organisations and adjusting to implemented changes is a key step to organisational survival (Paton and Dempster, 2002). This study primarily establish the relationship between gender and organisational change management (OCM). It aims to find out from male and female leaders and recipients of organisational change the differences and preferences in the way that men and women manage and approach organisational change scenarios, and how this may impact organisational change management outcomes.

According to Paton and Dempster (2002), organisations are yet to develop organisational change models that reflect the effectiveness of adopted models or strategies in an informed and integral manner. The importance of the concepts under study (gender and

OCM) is reflected in male and female leadership differences (Adichie, 2013 and Eagley, 1987) and the fact that change processes have a 70 per cent failure rate (Creasey, 2012, Daniel, 2011 and Sharma, 2006). Nevertheless, little or nothing has been researched on the two concepts, especially in developing countries such as Nigeria. Furthermore, there are empirical studies on the implementation of organisational change practices in developed countries such as the United Kingdom and United States (Gittleman, Horrigan and Joyce, 1998, Perez, Paton and Dempster, 2002, and Sanchez, Gamicer and Jimenez, 2004). However, there is a lack of empirical studies on the successful implementation of OCM programmes in Africa, with the exception of South Africa, where a few studies have been conducted (e.g., Horwtz, 1995, Kenny and Webster, 1998 and Orpen, 1981). Therefore, there is a need to explore and investigate the factors that could affect or contribute to the successful management of change programmes in Africa; precisely Nigeria (the specific reasons for the primary study location are provided in Chapter 4). Consequently, the present study explores the subjective individual experiences and accounts of organisational change managers and recipients with regards to how male and female leaders manage and approach organisational change scenarios, and the possible impact that this might have on OCM processes and outcomes.

According to Adichie (2013) and Paton and Dempster (2002), there are cognitive differences between males and females that indicate that males perform better on certain spatial tasks and mathematical reasoning, while women perform better on verbal fluency tasks. Dempster (1998) suggests that gender differences exist and impact on employee and organisational performance. Therefore, the gendered aspect of organisational change should not be ignored (Paton and Dempster, 2002). According to Handy (1996), organisational change programmes should be managed with the awareness of the yet-

unanswered gender imbalance questions. Paton and Dempster (2002) further propose that failure to address and harness gender capabilities may lead to organisations and organisational change agents ignoring an important factor that could lead to achieving optimal and lasting organisational change progress. Organisational change managers, change agents, consultants, academics and practitioners are advised not to underestimate the impact of gender leadership differences on the management of organisational change (Linstead et al., 2005 and Paton and Dempster, 2002).

Syed and Murray (2008) argue that organisations are dominated by gender imbalance conveyed through masculine values and structures rooted in the prevailing male privilege (often seen as male hegemony) and female disadvantage. Male hegemony refers to the dominant social position of male leaders and the subordinate social position of female leaders – this will be discussed in detail in Chapter 2. In addition, the present study creates an awareness of the distinct values that both sexes bring into general management practices such as OCM. The main emphasis is to convey the relevance of feminine attributes often exhibited by female leaders, along with masculine attributes often exhibited by male leaders, in order to have an equitable participation of both sexes in managerial positions.

In summary, gender in relation to management and other spheres has received considerable attention, as has OCM and its approaches. However, gender leadership differences and their impact on change management outcomes have received little or no attention. This study aims to explore whether there are differences and preferences in the way that men and women approach and manage change scenarios, and if this has an impact on OCM outcomes.

1.3 STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM

In spite of the growing research carried out on OCM, reports (Creasey, 2012a, Daniels, 2011, Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Sharma, 2006) indicate that OCM has often met with limited success, with a failure rate of around 70 per cent. Some authors (e.g., Linstead et al., 2005) attributed OCM's limited success to the fact that it had not been approached from a gender-inclusive perspective. Consequently, there is a need for OCM academics and practitioners to establish the intrinsic benefits that both sexes can bring to the success of organisational change (Paton and Dempster, 2002). Therefore, there is a need for more research to be carried out to investigate the gendered, social and behavioural aspects of OCM. The under-researched nature of OCM and gender was made evident in Dempster and Paton's (2002) survey, which identified that the area under study was under-researched and under-represented. Thus, further research was required to understand the intrinsic benefits that each gender can bring to OCM discourse.

Consequently, the explicit statement of problems has been summarised as:-

1. Reported failure rate of change management interventions and initiatives (Creasey, 2012, Daniel, 2011 and Sharma, 2006).
2. Gender and OCM linked together is a concept that has been under-researched and under-represented (Dempster and Paton, 2002, Linstead et al., 2005 and Paton and McCalman, 2008).
3. Empirical studies on the implementation of organisational change practices in developed countries such as the United Kingdom and United States have been conducted (Gittleman, Horrigan and Joyce, 1998 and Perez, Sanchez, Gamicer and Jimenez, 2004).

However, there is a lack of empirical studies on the successful implementation of OCM practices in Africa.

4. The need for research to be carried out to establish the extent and effectiveness of the approaches adopted by both sexes. Also, further research is required to establish how best to understand and exploit the intrinsic benefits that men and women leaders can bring to the success of organisational change (Paton and Dempster, 2002).

1.4 RESEARCH SCOPE

The scope of this study focuses on a range of OCM programmes and implementation in Nigeria and is not focused on any specific change. The present study explores the subjective accounts of male and female organisational change leaders and recipients of change. It explores the differences in the way that men and women leaders manage and approach organisational change programmes and the possible impact that this might have on OCM programmes and outcomes. This research primarily concentrates on five Nigerian organisations (one medical health centre, two banking organisations and two government parastatals/ministries) that have undergone change interventions in the last 10 years. The reason for the emphasis on changes that had taken place in the last 10 years was to ensure that respondents were able to give detailed accounts of their experiences after actual change implementation and management, and to ensure that respondents' accounts and experiences were not overly outdated.

1.5 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The research aim and objectives are summarised below.

1.5.1 Research Aim

The main aim(s) of this study is to examine the differences in the way that men and women approach and manage organisational change programmes, and it will further examine the impact that this might have on organisational change management outcomes. Furthermore, this research was undertaken in order to help to identify and recommend strategies that will assist in successfully managing change programmes in organisations.

1.5.2 Research Objectives

The study achieves the above aims through the following set objectives:-

- ❖ To review current trends, strategies and approaches adopted by change leaders in managing organisational change in Nigeria.
- ❖ To investigate male and female organisational change leadership differences and preferences in Nigeria.
- ❖ To explore organisational change leaders' and recipients' perceptions of the impact that gender leadership differences might have on OCM outcome in Nigeria.
- ❖ To identify and recommend strategies and guidelines that will assist with the successful management of change programmes in organisations.

1.6 KEY RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- ❖ What are the strategies and approaches currently adopted by change leaders in managing organisational change in Nigeria?
- ❖ What differences and preferences are demonstrated or expressed by men and women leaders for managing organisational change in Nigeria?
- ❖ What are managers and employees' perceptions of the impact that gender leadership differences may have on organisational change outcomes?

- ❖ What advice can be given to organisational change leaders who wish to achieve effective and successful management of change programmes in organisations?

Having summarised the aims and objectives and the research questions, the following section presents the methodological choices employed for collecting and analysing the data, and the rationale behind their selection.

1.7 STATEMENT OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGICAL CHOICES

A qualitative method through the use of semi-structured interviews was employed to enquire, comprehend and explore change leaders' and recipients' perceptions of the impact of gender leadership differences on organisational change management outcomes. The qualitative method was considered the most appropriate method to collect, interpret and analyse the complexities of two exploratory concepts such as gender and OCM. The adopted method utilised exploratory multi-case design semi-structured interviews conducted with 40 participants in five organisations representing the five cases of the study. This design enabled the study to research the problems in a natural setting and to generate theories from practice if deemed necessary (Poole and Van de Ven, 2005). Furthermore, it enabled a detailed and in-depth understanding of the researched constructs in the organisations where data was collected (Patton, 2002).

The initial stages of the data analysis adopted an inductive content analysis. This is a method used to identify patterns across qualitative data; it often provides frequencies, but focuses more on the micro level and the quantitative analysis of initial qualitative data (Wilkinson, 2000 and Ryan and Bernard, 2000). The process of inductive content analysis involved the condensation of data through initial and pattern coding, clustering and grouping the data into themes and categories. Subsequent stages of data analysis involved

the adoption of template analysis using the principles of an inductive thematic analysis. Guest and MacQueen (2012) describe thematic template analysis as an inductive set of procedures designed to identify and examine themes from textual data in a way that is transparent and credible. Also, Wolcott (1994) argues that thematic analysis enhances the clarity of results or findings and eases communication. Denzin and Lincoln (1994) and Miller (1988) also advocate it as a beneficial bridge between researchers of varying orientations and fields.

The other stages of analysis entailed the adoption of a descriptive data analysis. Thompson (2009 & 2011) advocates using descriptive data analysis to describe the relationship between the elements under study when a dataset consists of more than one variable. The main rationale for the adoption of descriptive data analysis was that it facilitated the summary and presentation of the findings. In addition to the techniques and tools of analysis, cross-case analysis was conducted on the five organisations. This examined the similarities and differences in the obtained findings from the five organisations. The adopted cross-case analysis improved the validity and credibility of this research as a result of multiple analyses of the collected data (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Each of the employed techniques or tools of analysis were used at different stages of the analysis. For example, template analysis using the principles of inductive thematic analysis and inductive content analysis were used in the first stage of the analysis (respondents' transcript analysis – see Table 10 in Chapter 4). According to Miles and Huberman (1994), if qualitative results are to be made accessible to an audience, researchers must be willing to employ different ways of organising and presenting data.

1.8 ANTICIPATED END GOAL OF THE RESEARCH

Understanding of the area under research (differences in the way that men and women approach and manage organisational change programmes and their impact on OCM outcomes), will lead to progress in the researched area other than just academic understanding. Therefore, the anticipated end goals of this research are:-

- ❖ The first goal is to help organisation(s) with efforts to improve change management programmes, initiatives and interventions that are applicable or appropriate to the organisational size, culture, structure and nature of the encountered changes.
- ❖ The second goal is to empower stakeholders, policy makers and change leaders to enable them to effectively manage change programmes from a more gender-inclusive perspective.
- ❖ The third goal is mainly to contribute to the growing body of knowledge and literature on gender, leadership and organisational change management.
- ❖ The fourth goal is to bring into awareness some critical success factors that need to be considered in effective and success management of organisational change programmes

1.9 ORGANISATION OF THESIS

Figure 1 presents the structure of the entire thesis. A brief description of each of the chapters is also provided below.

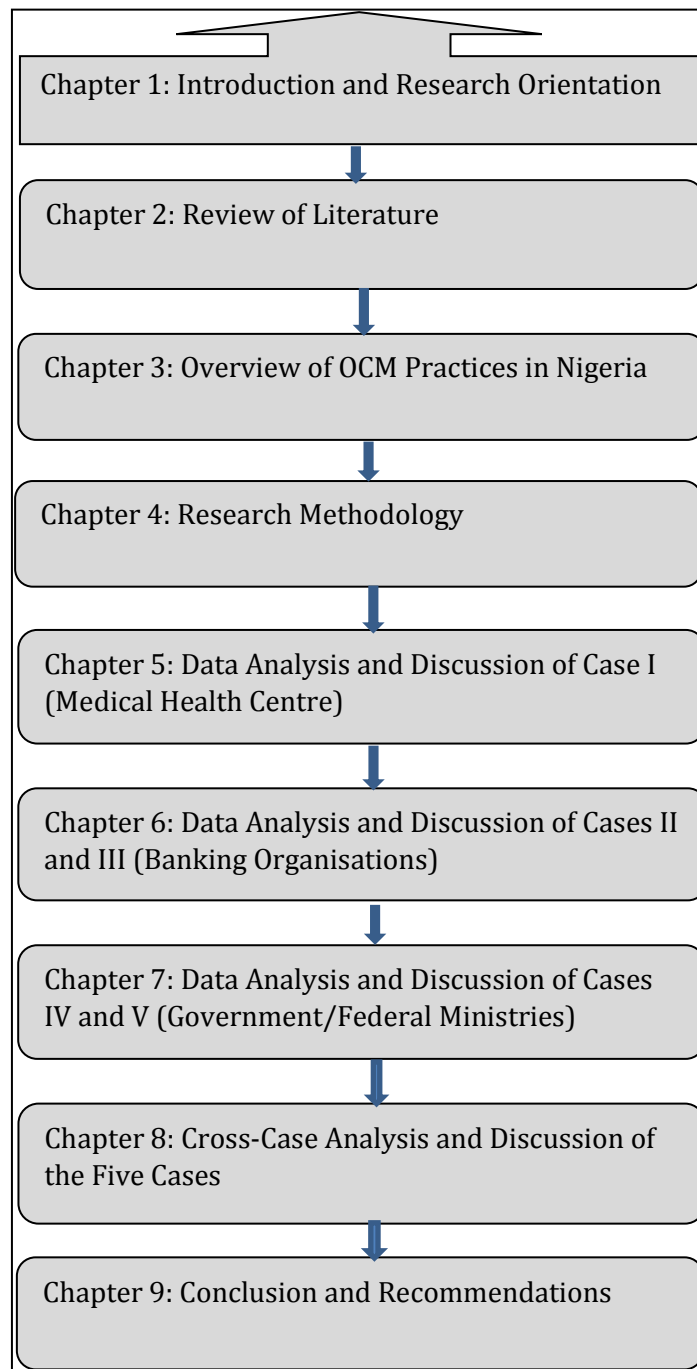


Figure 1. Structure of the Thesis

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

In order to define the scope and significance of the research, Chapter 2 critically reviews the relevant literature on gender and OCM. The chapter presents the theoretical framework of this research.

Chapter 3: Overview of OCM Practices in Nigeria

This chapter provides an insight into Nigeria and an overview of OCM processes or practices in the chosen location. It also provides a geographical context of the location where the sample was drawn from.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

This chapter discusses and evaluates the methods employed, and presents justifications for the chosen methods. It summarises the underlying philosophical perspectives and highlights the philosophical assumptions relevant to this study. The research strategy, approach and rationale for adopting the chosen approach and strategy are also discussed.

Chapters 5, 6 and 7: Data Analysis of the Five Cases

These chapters present the analysis and findings obtained from the semi-structured interviews. It presents the findings from the five cases, with the unit of analysis as the male and female leaders and recipients of changes introduced in the organisations. It essentially presents the findings of each research objective and research question, with some discussions linked to the reviewed literature.

Chapter 8: Cross-case Analysis and Discussions

This chapter presents a cross-case analysis of the five organisational cases. It brings together findings from the cases in a cross-case summary, presented in Tables, followed by discussions linked to the reviewed literature.

Chapter 9: Conclusion and Conceptual Model

This section summarises the overall findings. It provides some concluding thoughts and significance of the research findings from each objective. It highlights the detailed contributions to knowledge and the practical and empirical implications for practitioners and managers of organisational change. It further offers acknowledgement of the shortcomings of the research and recommendations for further research. The chapter further develops a conceptual model and makes recommendations aiming to contribute to the success of OCM.

The next chapter leads to a review of the extant literature on gender and management discourse, with a particular emphasis on OCM.

2 CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

“The manner in which change is approached, and, the techniques and models employed to handle it, can be subject to varying interpretation, and, acceptance, dependent upon gender” (Paton and McCalman, 2008: 59)

Gender in organisational change management discourse has received little attention; the gendered aspect of OCM seems to have been neglected by change agents, academics and practitioners (Dempster and Paton, 2002). Therefore, the present study reviews current trends, strategies and approaches adopted by change leaders, and further examine the impact of gender leadership differences on organisational change management outcomes. One of the first limitations encountered in this project is the lack of current research, articles and publications on the impact of gender leadership constructs on organisational change management. Hence, this chapter reviews and analyses leadership and gender at work, feminist theories/constructs, gender communication differences, the impact of followers’ gender/behaviour and the national/sector culture on leaders’ behaviour and freedom of management style. This will enable readers to understand how gender stereotypes affect the way that both sexes think, act and make decisions during change initiatives and processes in the workplace.

Essentially, this chapter takes a topical and narrative literature review approach in order to review extant literature on organisational change management processes, and leadership and gender at work, with the inclusion of feminist theories and constructs. Furthermore, the chapter also reviews the effect or impact of followers’ gender/behaviour and of national/sector culture on leaders’ behaviour and choice of leadership styles. The chapter further draws attention to the failure of the literature to address the impact of gender

leadership differences on organisational change management practices. This offers a significant but complex literature review that needs to be incorporated into OCM theory and practice.

2.2 MEANING AND SHARED DEFINITIONS OF OCM

This section presents the various definitions of OCM that have been provided by different scholars, researchers, academics and practitioners. A key definition will be chosen from the definitions presented in this section.

The meaning and definition of OCM is ambiguous in nature. For instance, Rouse (2009) accentuates it as a framework for managing the effect of new business processes. Conversely, Moran and Brightman (2001) describe it as a process of continual renewal of an organisation's direction, structure and capabilities. Essentially, there is no general or definite accepted definition of OCM.

Everyone associated with the practice of Organisational Change Management inevitably responds to the question 'What is OCM?' Ironically, most personnel associated with organisational change practices intuitively know what the term means, but fail to clearly convey to others what it truly means (Creasey, 2012a). Therefore, to overcome such barriers, this study produced a table of different definitions offered by different scholars and bodies (e.g., Halloran, 2009 and the Creasey 2012a). Table 1 depicts the interpreted or paraphrased definitions of OCM. The definitions in it were selected as a result of their proximity to the adopted definitions for this study. For instance, the study surmises that OCM is a complicated and difficult process to manage, and that there may be differences in the way that both sexes manage and lead an organisation's change process. Hence, this requires many technicalities to achieve the expected outcome.

Table 1: Definitions of OCM

Source (Author)	Definitions of OCM
Creasey and the Prosci Research Centre (2012a)	OCM is the application of a systematic approach in order to help individuals who have been affected by implemented changes. This is done by building support, addressing resistance and developing the required knowledge and ability to implement the change (managing the people side of the change).
Dean (2012)	Change management is said to be the process or approach of changing people, groups of people and organisations from the present state to the future expected one.
Olotu (2012)	OCM is a process of understanding the sentiments of workers in an organisation and working with them to promote the efficient delivery of the anticipated change, while securing enthusiastic support for its results.
Creasey and Prosci Research Centre (2010)	OCM is an application of set tools, processes, skills and principles for managing the people side of change to achieve the required outcomes of a change project or initiative.
Moran and Brightman (2001)	It is the process of continually renewing an organisation's direction, structure and capabilities to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers.

Rouse (2009)	OCM is defined as a framework for managing the effect of new business processes, changes in organisational structure or cultural changes within an enterprise.
Halloran (2009)	OCM is defined as the management of a transition from an old position to a new position, where one unfreezes the old state and refreezes the new state.
Tyler (2005)	Managing organisational change involves simultaneously managing resources, processes and emotions.

From the definitions depicted above, Halloran (2009) and Creasey's (2012a) definition will be employed and used in the course of this research. Looking through the stated definitions, Halloran's definition of OCM clearly conveys in simple terms what happens during change processes, one of the main reasons for its adoption in the study. Apparently, a change process cannot take place without an existing system, process and work ethos. Therefore, there has to be a transition from an old state or position to a new desired state, which is when Kurt's (1947) 3 phase model becomes relevant. However, Halloran's definition places more emphasis on the change process and lacks people's management of the change process, which is one of the vital aspects of OCM. Therefore, the study further adopts Creasey's (2012a) definition, as it places more emphasis on managing the after-effects and people side of change management. It goes on to address how resistance can be managed and how the necessary skills can be built to successfully manage organisational change processes.

Furthermore, speaking of the similarities and differences in the definitions presented in Table 1, it was realised there were two main points of emphasis made by the authors. Definitions from Creasey (2012a and 2010) and Olotu (2012) place greater emphasis on managing the people side of organisational change and do not make any clear reference to the change process. Speculatively, Creasey's (2012a and 2010) and Olotu's (2012) definition of OCM fall in line with Statham's (1987, cited in Moran, 1992) classification of a person-invested pattern of work behaviour, where leaders invest, educate and train the people that may be affected by the change process. Conversely, Dean (2012), Moran and Brightman (2001), Rouse (2009) and Halloran (2009) primarily focused their definitions on the change process and failed to take into account the people management aspect of the change process. Similarly, the above authors engage in a task-engrossed pattern of work behaviour, where leaders are task-oriented and care less about the emotional and people aspect of the change process. Tyler's (2005) definition made possible an effort to cover aspects of the change process and the people management of the change programme, as her definition appears to fall in line with Statham's (1987) classification of being task-engrossed and person-invested.

2.3 TRENDS AND THE NATURE AND NURTURING OF OCM

In order to survive in the current competitive and changing environment, it can be argued that the successful management of organisational change is important to organisations (Todnem, 2005). Change has almost become a normal routine in organisations (Lecke, 2008), which now live within an environment that is subject to change due to the influence of various factors, such as technology, which Dean referred to as jump starters (Dean, 2012). Furthermore, a school of researchers (e.g., Child and Smith, 1987, Rajagopalan and Spreitzer, 1994, Webb and Dawson, 1991 and Pettigrew, 1987) propose that

organisational change involves at least three stages. These they have indicated as the initiation, formulation and implementation of organisational change interventions and processes.

OCM is non-linear in nature, so it must be understood that change comes in various forms. In essence, our understanding of organisational change depends on people's observations and change experiences (Mills et al., 2009). Furthermore, an organisation's reaction to change is due to the fact that the organisation in its natural form is evolving (Daniels, 2011). As such, an OCM response will have to be adaptive. For example, the challenges involved in staying competitive, and the necessity to be relatively responsive to such changing environments, result in emerging organisational models, known as virtual and project-based. Theoretically, these have been typified as having an increased response to organisational change.

Change in organisations is a phenomenon that poses challenges to today's organisations, and it seems difficult for managers to demonstrate that they have successfully managed organisational change in the past and at present (Stewart, 1996). Notwithstanding this, change managers have been encouraged to see the opportunities offered by inevitable change and to adequately prepare the recipients for it, so that the expected outcome can be attained (Dean, 2012). Management of change in organisations is of great importance to those responsible for its sustained success. Therefore, managers must attempt to manage change effectively, because it is inevitable (Creasey, 2012, Mills et al., 2009 and Stewart, 1996). Looking from the 1980s, it is evident from various past, current and on-going research that strategic organisational change is of growing interest, as significant numbers of organisations in various parts of the world have tried to change their systems,

processes and contents. This often emerges as a result of specific organisations encountering issues or prospects based on internal and external stimuli (Creasey, 2012).

According to Oke (2005), some employees tend to have reservations towards innovative changes. Adebayo (2014) refers to these as lethargic employees who are not interested in innovation, irrespective of any associated benefits. Creasey (2012) advocates that organisational change can be promoted by becoming more competitive, efficient and productive, and through building a closer rapport with clients or potential recipients. This is intended to provide excellent and satisfactory services and to manage the processes effectively in order to attain the desired result. Below are some factors that generate or influence the need for change in organisations for the purposes of productivity and performance.

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From the above, it can be seen that change is a phenomenon that will continue from generation to generation; it certainly requires proper management for organisational survival (Tyler, 2005). Tyler asserts that change dynamics must be well understood and approached in order to avoid major setbacks and issues in organisations and society as a whole. Stewart (1996) further suggests that paying attention to knowledge and experience of organisational change will help to widen the understanding and knowledge of the nature of change, thus assisting change agents, managers and practitioners to be more effective in successfully managing organisational change.

There are distinct and cognitive differences in the way that men and women manage and lead within organisations in the African/Nigerian context (Adichie, 2013). However, an

intuitive assertion is not evidence enough. Therefore, the following section explores the distinct ways that male and female managers lead and manage in the workplace. This is linked with OCM.

2.4 THE GENDERED NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE IN MANAGEMENT THEORY AND PRACTICE

“It was surmised that different gender specific management styles exist and that such differences may influence the way both sexes approach and manage organisational change” (Paton and Dempster 2002:544)

In order to conceive the relationship and impact of gender leadership differences on OCM, this section integrates the concepts of leadership and gender at work into organisational change management practice in order to ascertain how gender affects the way that male and female managers act and think in OCM processes. This is necessary to meet the primary aim of the research, which is to clarify the differences in the way that male and female leaders approach and manage change scenarios and their impact on OCM outcomes.

The works of Paton and Demspster (2002) and Paton and McCalman (2008) raise wider concerns as to the extent of the link between both discourses (gender and organisational change). Many traditional analysts of gender studies (e.g. Eagly and Vinnicombe 1987) question the significance of using gender to understand how managers manage and lead in organisations. They argue that such typologies leave little or no room for an analysis of the actual leaders who manage or lead the change processes (Linstead et al., 2005). On the contrary, Hearn and Parkin (1994), Acker and van Houten (1992/1974), Baude (1992), Kanter (1977), Lindgren (1999) and Probert (1999, as cited in Abrahamson, 2002) suggest that gender plays a significant role in influencing how organisations work and

how they are built. Acker and co-researchers infer that an organisation's starting point is a structure that often characterises different conditions for males and females, even before organisational changes are enacted. Consequently, it is clear that the present situation of gender and OCM and how each sex is situated plays a vital role in the management of organisational change. This conceptualises the need for organisational change leaders and practitioners to illuminate its gendered and social aspect (Linstead et al., 2005). Linstead and co-researchers propose that if the expected outcome is to be achieved in managing organisational change, 'organisational change management may need to be approached from a gendered perspective' (Linstead et al., 2005:542).

Organisational change is complex and contextual in nature, with many facets (Stewart, 1996). Similarly, change is complex and has no single or right solution (Daniel, 2011). However, Daniel (2011) argues that there are a number of key areas to focus on, which involves working in diverse contexts to balance gender imbalance stereotypes. It is evident that gender exerts an influence on work organisation and structure, evidenced by work on experimented organisational change (Abrahamson, 2002). Furthermore, Ely and Meyerson (2000) argue that an understanding of gender in organisations begins with the notion that organisations are inherently gendered as a result of being created by and for men, where social practices tend to reflect and support men's experiences and life situations, thereby attaining and maintaining a gendered social order. Essentially, Ely and Meyerson (2000) are of the stance that progress towards equity has been slow, partial and superficial. In addition, the school of thought relating to gender studies (e.g., Eagley, 1987, Tyler, 2000 and Linstead et al., 2005) indicates that women are at most times not even given a chance to lead and make an impact as a result of yet-unanswered gender imbalance questions, such as the issues surrounding the Equality Act of April 2010 in the

United Kingdom. Ely and Meyerson (2000) further argue that not only has the progress of women been slow, but the few who progress to top management positions have often done so on probation and with lesser power and benefits. This can be seen from the huge wage disparity between the United Kingdom's men and women, which indicates that women are earning 15 per cent less than men (Bird, 2012). This is also not far removed from Smith's (2009) stance of occupational segregation, where women are often segregated and dominated in low-paid and part-time occupations with the five Cs: Cleaning, Catering, Caring, Cashiering, and Clerical Work. Feminist writers such as Walby (1990) argue that occupational segregation is largely a consequence of deliberate patriarchal strategies undertaken by men in order to secure the best jobs as well as maintaining their access to the domestic labour of women (Walby, 1990 cited in Crompton 1997: 13).

Consequently, Ely and Meyerson (2000) therefore propose that an emergent and systematic approach to the management of organisational change be put in place, whereby members of an entity should continuously identify, disrupt and subjugate oppressive gendered social activities and actively revise them. They further propose that to be comprehensive in this regard, multiple gendered critical lenses need to be simultaneously applied (Ely and Meyerson, 2000). In line with their stance, Skirstad (2009) posits that evolutionary or incremental change has impacted organisations, which has brought into the limelight results achieving gender equality (e.g. the Equality Act 2010) in the workplace. However, there still appears to be a high rate of gender imbalance in organisations where women remain under-represented, yet the struggle for gender equality has not yet been completely won (Skirstad, 2009). In spite of the considerable development in gender equality, a good number of women are still being turned down by

executive boards and not put in top managerial positions and practices (Skirstad, 2009 and Mullany, 2007). In line with Ely and Meryeson's (2000) proposition, Skirstad (2009) also proffers Pettigrew's contextual approach to managing organisational change. The approach suggested by Skirstad is ideally meant to help change leaders and practitioners to eradicate gender imbalance in the workplace by questioning the content, context and process of organisational change, so that overhauling these processes will help to arrive at a solution (Skirstad, 2009).

It is worth noting that gender imbalance is not the prime aim of this study, but a review of this is anticipated to contribute to the successful management of change processes in organisations, especially managing change from a more gender-inclusive perspective. This is because research (e.g., Creasey, 2012a, Daniels, 2011, Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Sharma, 2006) indicates that OCM has often met limited success, in spite of predominant ideas extensively disseminated into the area. Abrahamson (2002) argues that in attempting to obtain the desired outcome in OCM, it is essential to understand the dynamics and outcome of the restoration responses. She linked this to gender-based organisational patterns posing a threat to or being an obstacle to the success of OCM in organisations. Further research (Paton and Dempster, 2002, Raineri, 2009 and Todnem, 2005) infers that change initiatives certainly will not be complete without proper implementation. The approaches, models and techniques employed by change management leaders to manage change can be dependent upon gender (Linstead et al., 2005). This questions how both sexes cope with and drive change, and whether the identified differences are more than superficial (Linstead et al., 2005). Considering the increasing role that women play in OCM (Dempster, 2002), it is worth carrying out an

explorative study to know if men and women approach and manage change scenarios differently or not.

Gender is often acknowledged as having a great impact on management practice and theory (Paton and Dempster, 2002). However, gender in change theory and practice has been given limited attention (Linstead et al., 2005). It has been inferred that this has contributed to the reported failure rate of change management interventions and initiatives (Daniels, 2011). Therefore, Linstead and co-researchers call for more research to be carried out by internal and external change agents, consultants, entrepreneurs and managers involved in leading, initiating and managing organisational change, to interpret its gendered, social and behavioural aspects.

The next section explores various gender styles, perceptions and differences in male and female managers in the workplace.

2.5 GENDER-BASED PERCEPTIONS IN THE WORKPLACE

It has been observed and established that men and women tend to have different communication and work patterns; this has been well documented in various gender and management literature by researchers, social observers and sociologists (e.g., Abrahamson, 2000, Ely and Meyerson, 2000, Halloran, 2009, Linstead et al., 2005, Paton and Dempster, 2002, Senior and Fleming, 2006, and several others).

Table 3 below depicts two extreme spectrum workplace styles and expectations exhibited by male and female managers in the workplace.

Table 3: Spectrum Workplace Styles (Hahn and Litwin, 1995)

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The above table depicts that both sexes have distinct styles in varying work situations. It further illustrates that women prefer more participative and collaborative approaches, whilst men prefer more transactional and directive approaches to managing and leading. This was also evidenced in Dempster's (2002) research, which revealed that there are cognitive differences between male and female managers. The typology indicates that male and female managers do not reason the same. Proponents of the above typology (e.g., Lempert, 1985, Moir and Moir, 1998 and O'Boyle, 1987 and 1991) construe that males tend to use their left side of the brain alone to solve problems, whilst females use both sides of their brain. This implies that men's brains tend to be more focused on a particular aspect, while women's tend to network. It was observed that male managers tend to take things step by step, concentrate on one job and complete it before proceeding to the next one. Conversely, female managers are likely to be far better suited to multi-tasking. The construed analogy is an indication of women's multi-tasking and networking skills, which tend to be more advantageous in the managing of OCM programmes, albeit there is no one best method or approach to managing change (Stewart, 1996). However, among approaches adopted by both sexes there may be a specific approach from either sex that could be more effective and successful in managing and leading organisational change. According to Strebel (1996), people who pretend that the same kind of change

management strategy can be applied to different change situations are incapable of managing change programmes. Essentially, the table indicates that men and women handle change situations differently, by using a preferred style of leading and managing. In addition, it is essential to have some models and techniques to diagnose change situations and identify gender-specific approaches or methods that will be the most effective and successful (Senior and Fleming, 2006). This is because different stages of change require different managerial and leadership approaches or styles to be employed.

This leads to exploring the various leadership styles or approaches best suited for the successful implementation of change processes in organisations. However, it can be argued that the explored and discussed styles depend on the type and level of change (Senior and Fleming, 2006). For instance, the style required to handle incremental or planned change will be different from the style required to handle radical change or to change opposition or resistance to change (Reardon et al., 1998).

2.6 CASE FOR THE MOST SUITABLE LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR MANAGING ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

“Considering the characteristics of different leadership and managerial styles, there might be a particular style that will be most appropriate in leading organisational change” (Senior and Fleming, 2006:281).

This section discusses and suggests a number of leadership and managerial styles that can be integrated into the management of organisational change. The section advocates that change leaders must understand their distinct styles and identify which is best suited to different change situations.

Dealing with change is one of the rudiments of successfully managing an organisation (Dean, 2012), and it is a crucial area that managers will have to experience if they are to be called successful managers (Stewart, 1996). Paton and Dempster (2002) assert that OCM has a certain number of prerequisites that must be met and complied with if success is to be attained. The prerequisites they suggest entail skills and knowledge associated with change and the suitability and position of those leading and managing organisational change. The key factors to the successful management of organisational change are more in tune with “proactive and effective readiness and responsiveness to change” (Reardon et al., 1998:129). Leaders and managers of change must be flexible and be able to familiarise themselves with new conditions, be open to novel alternatives and have a persistent attitude to taking greater risks when enacting change interventions (Kotter, 1990, Reardon et al., 1998 and O’Toole, 1996).

Arguably, leaders and managers often address the technical aspects (initiation, formation and implementation) of change but fail to consider vital required factors, such as the adequate management of recipients to successfully implement proposed change (Heifetz and Laurie, 1997, Rowe and Mason, 1987 and Rowe and Boulgarides, 1992). Reardon and Rowe (1998) assert that leaders who are able to consider such factors are strategic and effective leaders of organisational change, which infers that leaders, who recognise the need for the integration of skills, rather than being fragmented, are able to be successful and effective change managers. In essence, multiple styles of leadership are required to manage most forms of proposed change in organisations. Arguably, most effective leaders possess more than one leadership style (Reardon et al., 1998 and Senior and Fleming, 2006). This is the main reason for Reardon et al.’s (1998) suggestion of leaders identifying which style is best suited for a specific change situation or process.

Similarly, Senior and Fleming (2006:281), in accentuating the importance of leaders identifying which style is best suited for each stage, state that “considering the characteristics of each leadership and managerial style, there might be a particular leadership and managerial behaviour that may be most appropriate in leading organisational change”, if organisations are to achieve their desired OCM outcome.

In line with Reardon et al. (1998) and Senior and Fleming’s (2006) stance, Belbin (1993), Clarke and Pratt (1985) and Kirton (1976) argue that different people have different thinking and working patterns. Therefore, extreme care should be taken not to presume that the same leadership style can be adopted in all change situations, because certain leadership styles that may be suitable for specific change situations may not be appropriate for another. Nevertheless, leadership style and behaviour vary according to the characteristics and nature of the change. These situations and typologies Senior and Fleming (2006) posit are an organisation’s stage of development, the nature of the change process and the forces for or against the success of the proposed change (particularly resistance to change). This will be discussed in the next section.

Essentially, the ‘best way’ of leading and managing the organisational change process is a summation of all the required characteristics of good governance essential for the successful leadership and management of change processes. Thus, there are different leadership or managerial styles and behaviours that are associated with different stages or forms of change. To this end, Senior and Fleming (2006) linked the transformational leadership style to managing transformational or frame-breaking change, and to the recreation of organisational processes, content and systems. Dunphy and Stacey (1993) advocate that adopted management styles should be dependent on the type or nature of

the introduced change. For instance, Dunphy and Stacey (1993) linked different leadership styles to different types and forms of change. Depicted in Figure 2 below is the outcome of their leadership and change type linkage on service companies.

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Figure 2. The Matrix Style of Organisational Management (Dunphy and Stace, 1993)

This figure indicates that directive and coercive leadership styles are suitable for managing transformational change at the corporate level. However, Dunphy and Stace (1993) purport that there is also the choice to mix directive and consultative strategies to maintain an absolute balance. They further suggest a consultative style at the operational level in order to win the commitment of employees, which is often referred to as ‘employee buy-in’. It can be construed that a more consultative style of management may be best applied to manage converging and incremental change. Strebel (1996) suggests a model that not only links styles of leadership to OCM, but also links them to the degree to which an entity is open to change initiatives. Essentially, any discourse on leadership and management of organisational change must take into account an organisation’s willingness to remain either open or closed to change prospects in concurrence with

Hofstede's (1980) model. Arguably, leading and managing organisational change is almost entirely dependent on managing and overcoming change resistance or opposition. According to Senior and Fleming (2006), there will be forces for or against change processes. Also, Abrahamson (2002) infers that present organisations need broader gender communication, which should retain a form of equality between male and female managers (e.g., the Equality Act 2010). This, she argues, would help with handling resistance to change and other issues that may arise when achieving the proposed change in organisations.

The next section addresses the impact of the most suited leadership styles on managing internal forces that act against the success of organisational change initiatives and interventions.

2.7 THE IMPACT OF APPROPRIATE LEADERSHIP STYLE IN MANAGING RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

“Inspirational and participative leaders are required throughout introduced change process, in order to overcome resistance to organisational change” (Reardon et al., 1998:134).

Not every leadership styles may be suitable to manage the people side of organisational change, which originates from organisational change resistance (Reardon et al., 1998). Essentially, not all styles are suited to managing resistance to change. It has been observed that reducing or overcoming resistance to organisational change entirely depends on the ability, suitability and leadership or management styles of leaders. This section therefore reviews and discusses the styles of leadership required to manage change opposition or resistance. The rationale behind this section is to highlight the importance of an appropriate leadership style in terms of managing resistance to change.

Daniels (2011) defines organisational change resistance as an individual or group of employees engaging in acts to impede and deter the successful implementation of organisational change. Such resistance could come in the form of different types or phases, usually from subtly undermining proposed change initiatives or the withholding of information to active resistance. According to Halloran (2009), resistance to organisational change is an unpredictable aspect of the change process, and as such can only be reduced and not totally avoided. Resistance is known to be a normal reaction from almost all those affected by a change process, who are often comfortable with the status quo or are used to the normal routine of doing things and do not desire any change. Forces acting against change processes in organisations can be internal or external (Dean, 2012 and Senior and Fleming, 2006). Mauer (2009) suggests that such factors must be addressed adequately; otherwise they will impede the implementation of the desired change.

Resistance to change – also known as change opposition – is prevalent and very crucial in cases of OCM. It is a syndrome that should be expected by change leaders and managers at every organisational change intervention. Changes in organisations are an indivisible part of an active business environment that faces internal and external challenges. Thus, Dean (2012) suggests that both staff and management should prepare for possible resistance or change opposition as part of preparing to face changes and implementation.

Management and leadership styles play a vital role in the management of change opposition or resistance to change. To effectively respond to organisational change opposition, Reardon et al. (1998:130) assert that leaders must recognise their own

strengths and weaknesses and understand the extent to which their leadership styles are suited to the pressures and demands faced in the change process. Management has a wide range of responsibilities to play in ensuring that change opposition or resistance is adequately handled and dealt with. According to Maurer (2009), it is crucial that organisations identify causes of resistance and accordingly identify the most suitable leadership style to effectively manage it.

Consequently, Maurer (2009) described resistance to change as a reaction to the way in which changes in organisations are led; thereby arguing that resistance is in the eyes of the beholder, as resisters do not necessarily see it as resistance, but rather as survival. This is because they feel that such resistance protects them from the adverse effect of the proposed or implemented change. By comparison, Paton and Dempster (2002) contend that change opposition is not resistance to change itself, but a reaction to the way that the change is being introduced and the amount of communication provided, arguing therefore that resistance to change occurs as a result of insufficient attention being paid to the process of change. Paton and Dempster (2002) further deduce that there are different types of resistance to change and different ways to lead and manage the encountered resistance to change, such as using a collaborative and consultative leadership and management style, as shown in Dunphy and Stace's (1993) matrix model of organisational change, rather than adopting a coercive and directive leadership style. To this end, organisations now involve employees through consultation, participation and communication (Paton and Dempster, 2002).

Any organisation that is implementing or launching either small or large changes should be prepared to encounter some forms of resistance (Maurer, 2009). Reardon et al.

(1998:137) accentuate this as a “natural inclination” when confronted with naysayers and critics. Therefore, leaders are expected to be prepared to manage it effectively, either by coercion or encouragement (Reardon et al., 1998). However, DePree (1989) warns that managers and leaders should take precautions not to inflict pains on those involved, but rather to bear and manage such situations effectively. Resistance to change is a normal reaction from employees who are accustomed to a certain way of doing things, and if not motivated they will antagonise the proposed change process (Watson and Gallagher, 2005). Managers and leaders see disagreement as a clear indication of rebelliousness, because they often surround themselves with loyal subordinates who do not pose threats to their leadership in any way (DePree, 1989). This is particularly common in the African context, where affected employees tend to have a resigned compliance as a result of value systems and cultural, social and religious factors that exist in the workplace (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011). This will be discussed more in detail in Chapter 3.

Organisations themselves must be open to any required change and are perceived to be subject to internal and external changes (Dean, 2012). Leaders and managers must be able to foresee what employees’ possible reactions will be towards the introduced change, and formulate change programmes to actively assist members of staff with going through the change process (Dean, 2012). As stated earlier, these are some of the necessary prerequisites for managing organisational change effectively.

There are no born ‘resistors’ to deter management’s efforts, but employees react against and resist what is perceived to be harmful (Maurer, 2009). Resistance is one major reason why change initiatives in organisations fail (Maurer, 2009). This was made evident in his survey, which reported that 500 executives had expressed resistance as the primary reason

why organisational change initiatives had not met the desired or expected outcomes. Conversely, Maurer contends that the observed statistics are only partly correct, because resistance is not the primary reason why changes in organisations fail. Maurer (2009) opined that the real problem is that leaders plan and roll out major changes in ways that stir up lethargy and opposition from affected employees. For instance, a change leader who announces the implementation of a particular change within a short period of time will stir up dissension or resistance from employees and middle managers. Employees may redouble opposition, which leads to the proposed change's failure or it going over budget and beyond the estimated deadlines.

Halloran (2009) has identified the fear factor as the primary cause or reason behind resistance to organisational change. This she posits is false evidence appearing real, which prevents those affected from seeing the real truth in an initiated change programme. These fear factors she succinctly outlines as: -

- ❖ Fear of the unknown
- ❖ Fear of failure
- ❖ Fear of loss of status
- ❖ Fear of loss of control
- ❖ Fear of losing job
- ❖ Fear of increased workload

The prerequisites required for overcoming these fears are proper and appropriate leadership and management of the initiatives and, most importantly, communication at

every stage of the change process (Daniels, 2011, Halloran, 2009, Linstead et al., 2005 and Watson and Gallagher, 2005). According to Okafor (2009), if an employer deems it necessary to train employees on new trends and methods of work operation, there is a higher probability that employees will embrace and accept the initiated changes.

Daniels (2011) further identifies a lack of effective leadership as one of the major impediments in obtaining successful change in organisations. Reardon et al., (1998:129) propose that multiple styles of leadership are required to adeptly implement and enact most forms of change in organisations. This leads to the next section, which explores various managerial, and leadership styles and preferences adopted by both sexes. This is to enable the adoption of the most suitable style and behaviour in OCM practices.

2.8 MANAGERIAL AND LEADERSHIP DIFFERENCES AND PRACTICES IN ORGANISATIONS

“People ultimately manage change and not technologies, systems or organisations, and given the growing complexity and pace of changes in and outside organisations, any influences of gender leadership differences on organisational change processes might have strong impact upon performance” (Paton and Dempster, 2002:538).

Effective leadership is a strong enabler of the successful management of change processes because it provides the vision and rationale for the effective management of organisational change (Daniels, 2011). Men and women differ in their managerial and operational skills (Adichie, 2013, Creasey, 2012b, Daniels, 2011, Moran, 1992 and Statham, 1987). In contrast, Taft (2008) contends that within the workplace, female managers differ from male managers in style and not in skill. The central question of this study asks if there are differences in the way that men and women manage and lead

organisational change scenarios. If there are visible differences, how might such differences impact the management of organisational change outcomes?

Eagley (1987) postulates that there are enormous differences in the leadership and management style of both sexes. In line with Eagley's (1987) standpoint, research carried out by the Innis Company (2009) indicates that there are visible differences in the way that both sexes lead and manage. However, Hendrick (1994) avers that there is a likely probability that differences in leadership and management styles in female and male managers may not exist; rather it boils down to the personality of the individual in question. Furthermore, Huang et al., (2011) postulate that leaders' behaviour and adopted managerial styles are sometimes influenced by the behaviour and gender of their followers. Hendrick's (1994) research also points out that corporate culture, age and personal and cultural biases act as determinants of one's leadership and management style – this will be discussed in more detail in subsequent sections. However, he maintains that the effectiveness and expertise still boil down to the individual. The prevailing gender disparity in organisations typifies gender as individual characteristics that stem from one's biological category as male or female. The theory above indicates that there are sex-role socialisations [social differences] that account for inequality between men and women, thus rendering women less skilled than men in the workplace (Ely and Meyerson, 2000). In line with the above typology, Rosener (1990) also attributed such gender differences in the workplace to gender socialisation in the early childhood phase. Similarly, Helgesen (1995) postulates that gendered management styles in the workplace develop as a result of a disparity in socialisation. Helgesen (1995) argues that female managers are relatively better than male leaders at developing creativity, cooperation and intuition in others. The roles that women play (right social skills) in organisations is

becoming more influential, because they better suit the present way of life than command-oriented approaches as adopted by male leaders (Oerton, 1996).

Along the same line of reasoning, Eagley (1987) infers that prejudice towards female leadership styles often restricts women from securing leadership positions. Female leaders are yet to attain expected leadership positions, as there are certain prerequisites that must be met, such as being extremely qualified with proven records of accomplishment and being over-prepared for the positions that they wish to occupy. Once female leaders have been able to attain the expected positions, they are further expected to act like their male counterparts to successfully manage and lead organisations (Moran, 1992). Although there have been significant improvements in the equal representation of both sexes, women are vastly under-represented, especially with the gender-gap issues in Nigeria and other African countries (Olukayode, 2013). Olukayode's study further asserts that both sexes in organisations should be accorded the same privilege to lead and manage, so as to contribute to decision making and the implementation of policy in the workplace. In contrast, Dowling et al. (2008) and Skirstad (2009) contend that women are often their own worst enemies, in that they are always reluctant to take chances to climb up the management ladder. Alimo-Metcalfe (1995), a British researcher, also argues that the manner in which managerial selection and promotion decisions are made is one common reason why there are relatively fewer women than men in top management positions, considering that male managers occupy the majority of decision-making positions (Tyler, 2005). When finding out whether men and women see leadership qualities differently, Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) discovered that male and female managers do indeed characterise and view effective management differently. Alimo-Metcalfe's (1995) research shows that female managers perceived an effective manager to be

someone who related with their counterparts as equals and who was responsive and aware of the effects that they had on others. Conversely, Linstead et al. (2005) reported that male managers valued influence and self-confidence over other managerial interpersonal skills. Additionally, females in Alimo-Metcalfe's research further spoke about a working style and pattern that is supportive, and that empowers and builds teams. On the contrary, men indicated that drive, direction and the transmission of a clear purpose to staff were the main emphasis. Given these differences in style, Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) categorises female managers as transformational leaders and male managers as transactional leaders. However, she acknowledges that such differences may vary according to locations or countries. For instance, she deduces that Britons may perceive and interpret transformational and transactional leadership differently from the way that Africans view and perceive it. According to Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2001:18), "UK understanding of transformational leadership appears to be based on what the leader does for the individual, such as empowering, valuing, supporting and developing the involved employees". The above typology builds on how national or sector culture can define one's choice of leadership style and how different cultures may have varying perceptions of different organisational leadership styles. This by implication infers that culture to a great extent can influence leaders' or managers' freedom to exercise or exhibit their preferred style of leadership – this will be discussed in more detail in section 2.17 and Chapter 3.

Similarly, Eagley (1987) characterised the differences in leading and managing in both sexes as:

Men's styles:-

- ❖ task-oriented

- ❖ autocratic
- ❖ command-and-control
- ❖ punishment-oriented
- ❖ transactional

Women's styles:-

- ❖ team players
- ❖ democratic
- ❖ transformational
- ❖ reward-oriented
- ❖ inspirational
- ❖ collaborative

In line with Eagley's (1987) typology of leadership differences, Rosener's (1990 and 1997) research on male and female managerial and leadership differences showed that male managers mostly adopted a transactional leadership style. This entailed the use of exchange principles (reward for work done efficiently and punishment for work inappropriately done). Such an observed style was known as the 'carrot and stick approach' from the interviews conducted in this study. On the contrary, Rosener's (1990) research indicated that women adopted a transformational leadership style. This she stated entails encouraging staff through strong commitment, employee participation in decision making, and leading and managing through personal qualities, rather than empowering through the use of position or power. By contrast, male managers see their jobs in transactional terms, by heavily relying on formal authority and power. Rosener

(1990) further buttressed her observations and argued that gender behaviours are associated with two leadership styles – command control and interactive – which can be likened to transactional and transformational. She asserts that female managers tend to prefer the interactive (transformational) style, but are influenced or encouraged by a plethora of publicity to adopt a male-oriented (command or transactional) style. Paton and Dempster's (2002) research evidenced that women felt that they must change their management or leadership style and adopt male-oriented styles, if they were to succeed as effectual change agents.

The feminine model of leadership is likely to be more appropriate and effective in socio-economic climate events that can scale through an economic downturn, than command-and-control leadership styles adopted by most male managers (Rosener, 1990 and Oerton, 1996). In essence, the key to maintaining an organisation's corporate success and ability in today's global market is having women in top management positions. This is because their unique management style amplifies productivity and profitability, which have been attained through their attitude and compliance (Linstead et al., 2005). Drawn from the transformational leadership style premise, it can be construed that female managers may be better equipped at managing changes in organisations (Paton and Dempster, 2002). In line with Paton and Dempster's (2002) stance, Hinkin and Tracey (1999) identified a key number of behaviours that may be easily associated with women as transformational leaders more in tune with participative, empowering and visualising strategies. Paton and Dempster (2002) argue that leadership behaviours that can truly transform organisations are the ones that communicate a sense of where the organisation is going and develop the skills and competencies of followers, as well as encouraging innovative and participative problem solving. The above highlighted strategies were revealed to be more

advantageous in managing change, thus the need for developing and making provision for models and techniques that reflect and address potential gender style differences in managing and leading organisational change. The above confirms this study's conceptual model that promotes gender-inclusive methodologies in the management of organisational change.

Furthermore, Eagly (1987) and Gibson (1993) accentuate the communal behaviours of both sexes and argue that those concerned with the welfare of people are likely to be attributed to female leaders. Eagly and Johnson's (1990) research on gender and leadership deduces that female managers predominately adopt democratic and participative leadership styles more than men. Such leadership styles do not only impact OCM, but also career progression (Paton and Dempster, 2002). Furthermore, Vinnicombe's (1987) analysis, using Myers-Briggs' approach to ascertain how both sexes perform roles in the workplace, discovered female managers as being visionaries and catalysts who are more collaborative and less authoritative. Based on the reviewed and observed gender leadership differences in the workplace, Table 4 summarises the key differences in the way that both sexes manage and lead in the workplace.

Table 4: Gender Leadership Differences in the Workplace (Researcher 2016)

Male Managers	Female Managers
❖ Effective	❖ Affective
❖ Command-oriented	❖ Consultative
❖ Self-confident	❖ Conciliatory

❖ Dominating	❖ Partnership-oriented
❖ Competitive	❖ Collaborative
❖ Decisive	❖ Transformational
❖ Aggressive	❖ Person-oriented
❖ Independent	❖ Empowering
❖ Transactional	❖ Collegiate
❖ Result-oriented	❖ Interpersonal
❖ Goal or task driven	❖ Outcome driven
❖ Closed	❖ Open

Most leaders do not possess a single leadership and managerial style, but rather a combination of different styles (Reardon et al., 1998). Reardon and co-researchers argue that these combinations indicate which styles particular leaders are ideally disposed to use. Research carried out by Marshall (1995) indicated that women felt that in order to succeed as change agents, they would have to change their management styles and adopt a more male-oriented style to have both themselves and their changes accepted. The male-dominated styles they illustrated as being directive and aggressive. This Stewart (1996) referred to as the Thatcher approach to managing change. This was intended to enable women to implement the desired change initiatives and to have their approaches accepted. On the contrary, Taft (2008) argues that it is rather insensitive for female managers to adopt a male-oriented approach in leading and managing people in times of organisational change. It is necessary to manage organisational change effectively using both sexes' preferred style, and to consider the emerging gender balance questions: do men and

women approach and manage change scenarios differently? This research intends to investigate this point.

The extant literature on gender studies infers that there are distinct styles in both the sexes' means of communicating organisational change. Communication is one of the vital elements in all aspects of OCM. The next section therefore explores the communicative differences in male and female managers.

2.9 COMMUNICATION STYLE DIFFERENCES IN MALE AND FEMALE MANAGERS

In a general context, men and women appear to speak and communicate differently. It has been observed that women tend to be more verbal, while men tend to be physical (Jakes, 1998). In Jakes' (1998) analysis of male and female communication, women try to talk about everything in detail, while men tend to make lesser use of words in their communication, doing so more often through body language, signs and touches, for example, the use of a pat on the back, meaning 'I like you'. On the contrary, Vinnicombe and Colwill (1995), as cited in Paton and McCalman (2008:65), contend that men tend to talk more, use more words to prove a point, interrupt more and make more summarising and orienting comments than women. In addition to Jakes (1998) and contrary to Vinnicombe and Colwill's (1995) stance, Alobwede (2015) argues that women externalise in their style of communication, while men internalise. For instance, over time, it has been observed that women are more expressive and vocal with emotions and personal situations, whilst men would rather express such concepts through actions. This is a clear indication that male and female managers differ in their communication styles,

when considered from an organisational context. If the desired outcome in OCM must be attained, the distinct communication styles have to be taken into consideration (Burnes, 2004). Communication plays a vital role in the management of organisational change (Paton and Dempster, 2002). Hence, Jakes (1998) suggests that both sexes need to understand each other's method and style of communication if success is to be achieved.

Consequently, strategic leaders rely profoundly on communication and persuasion to implement desired changes (Reardon et al., 1998). Communication is the first strategic approach to dealing with change resistance (Maurer, 2009). In expansion, Kotter and Schlesinger (1979, as cited in Dean, 2012), proposed communication as one of the key approaches to managing change opposition or resistance. In addition, Burnes (2004) further proposed that communication should not be a one-off exercise but should instead be regular, consistent and pursued through various channels rather than one, such as newsletters and team briefings (Okafor, 2009). Therefore, when communicating awareness or the need for change, organisations should have a wide range of formal and informal channels of communication (Burnes, 2004).

Effective communication is one of the major success factors of OCM (Creasey, 2012a). Employees faced with change often go through a process of shock and denial, before finally embracing and adapting to the proposed change (Clarke, 1994 and Nortier, 1995, as cited in Senior and Fleming, 2006). This will require effective and transparent communication through a proposed change plan. The purpose of such communication is not only to inform employees that a particular change is being considered, but to subtly draw them into a dialogue on the necessity and acceptance of the change (Burnes, 2004). Communication is one of the most effective means of gaining employees' buy-in to

support change programmes. This is strongly linked to Lewin's (1951) 'force-field analysis' model. The model suggests conducting a critical analysis of the driving and restraining forces of change. Driving forces are the known and unknown benefits of change, which therefore should be boosted, and restraining forces indicate 'fear' factors that constitute threats. The model therefore infers that immediate steps should be taken to increase critical driving forces and decrease critical restraining forces. Watson and Gallagher (2005) proposed communication as the key tool to achieving the two steps associated with the model.

Taft (2008), in her research that examined gender differences in the workplace, reports communication as one major problem that men and women find difficult to deal with, especially when it involves power, advocacy and managing teams. Rosener (1995), in reviewing Gray's (1992) and Tanen's (1994) work, argues that men communicate to obtain information, show independence and establish their status. Conversely, women communicate to create relationships and to encourage a mutual exchange of feelings and interaction.

Furthermore, and as stated in preceding sections, certain prerequisites and needs must be met and satisfied in order to attain the desired outcome in OCM. Communication is one of the competencies and skills required of organisational change leaders and managers if success is to be attained (Paton and Dempster, 2008). Women and men in organisations often get tied in communication knots as a result of distinct ways of communication (Taft 2008).

The distinct ways in which both sexes communicate was reported by Taft (2008) as a result of frequent gender stereotyping. Male and female leaders were asked to review the

communication techniques they used when managing organisational change (Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Paton McCalman, 2008). The result of their survey indicated the following preferences in the communication aspect of organisational change.

Table 5 illustrates differences in male and female communication styles in OCM, based on Paton and Dempster's (2002) survey.

Table 5: Communication Differences in Male and Female Leaders (Paton & Dempster, 2002)

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The table depicts that male leaders are more in tune with image-engrossed approaches of communication, whereas female leaders were more in tune with autonomy-invested approaches, such as workshops, brainstorming and information dissemination (Statham, 1987, as cited in Moran, 1992). Nevertheless, there are some barriers and influencing factors that distort effective communication of organisational change, irrespective of the observed distinct styles in male and female communication styles (Watson and Gallagher, 2005). Any observed barriers must be adequately addressed; otherwise they may interfere with the desired result. The postulated barriers and factors are illustrated in Figure 3 below.

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Figure 3: Organisational and Communication Model (Watson and Gallagher, 2005:178)

The figure above presents a model that communicates through ‘encoding’ and ‘decoding’ messages sent via communication channels, such as face-to-face, written and telephone (Shannon and Weaver, 1949, as cited in Watson and Gallagher, 2005:178). The model infers that no communicator should assume that every message communicated will be received in its original intended form. The model is concerned with the creation, transmission, use and interpretation of information, because communication can be wrongly transmitted and interpreted by its recipients. Organisations want total commitment and for its employees to “identify with the goals and value of the organisation, requiring employees to belong to it and work hard on its behalf” (Watson

and Gallagher, 2005:178-79). To develop and attain the required committed workforce, Watson and Gallagher suggest that organisations should make a significant effort to create and maintain an effective two-way communication.

2.10 SITUATION OR POSITION OF BOTH SEXES IN CHANGE PROCESSES

This section explores the position of each sex in organisational change processes. It emphasises how both sexes are categorically situated in the management and process of organisational change.

The organisational change process is a complicated and daunting task, involving the management of three elements – resources, processes and emotions (Tyler, 2005). This is an indication that leaders or managers may not be able to manage the three identified elements simultaneously, as per the sex of the leader. This led to the analysis of the situations or positions of each sex, regarding different aspects of change processes in organisations.

Women were ascribed as secondary and emotional change managers, whilst men were described as primary and hard managers of organisational change (Tyler, 2005). Additionally, women were tagged with otherness (organisation's second sex) and were subjected to certain aspects of OCM (e.g., the emotional aspect of it). This was made evident in Tyler's (2005) assertion of women's skills being mostly deployed to manage the emotional aspect of change management. Speculatively, women are commended as better managers of resistance to change, or change opposition, because their stated skills are more advantageous in managing change resistance, a position reviewed in the preceding resistance management section.

In line with Tyler's (2005) stance, Ely and Meyerson (2000), while classifying both sexes in the change process, described women as being ill-suited for hard-driven and task-oriented roles. This was as a result of women's application of Soft-HR measures in handling technical roles, while men adopted hard approaches to managing similar roles (Ely and Meyerson, 2000). In elaboration, Hard-HR approaches are traditional mechanistic HR strategies that entail the harsh management of organisational human resources in order to attain effectiveness and overall organisational performance. For example, hard approaches promote low wages, minimal training, less autonomy and closer supervision and monitoring, appraisal and reward (Beardwell and Claydon, 2007, as cited in Ihuah, 2014). The Soft-HR approach tends to be an open system strategy that allows total employee participation and integration in the policy formulation process, while also considering other external organisational factors (Analoui, 2002, as cited in Ihuah, 2014). Thus, it can be deduced that women predominantly adopt Soft-HR approaches, such as the use of collaboration, involvement, participation, paternalistic approaches, nurturing and peace-making in managing organisational change, whereas men predominantly adopt Hard-HR approaches, which involve the use of command-oriented, forced evolution, dictatorial and transactional approaches to managing organisational change.

From the reviewed and observed classification of men and women in OCM, below is a table highlighting how both sexes are situated or positioned in the entire change process.

Table 6: Situation of Male and Female Managers in Managing Organisational Change (Researcher 2016)

Male Change Managers	Female Change Managers
❖ Effective	❖ Affective
❖ Primary managers	❖ Secondary managers
❖ Hard- HR	❖ Soft-HR
❖ Sophisticated	❖ Paternalistic
❖ Commanders	❖ Negotiators
❖ Proactive	❖ Reactive
❖ Objective	❖ Subjective
❖ Strategic	❖ Emotional
❖ Transactional	❖ Transformational

The table illustrates women leaders as secondary and affective managers of organisational change, rather than effective managers of OCM (Leonard, 1998). Speculatively, masculinity continues to be applauded as an integral achievement of effective change. Consequently, gendered OCM processes tend to position men as effective managers, such as primary, proactive and strategic managers (Tyler, 2005). This also brings to mind Crompton's (1997:2) 'Breadwinner Model' – the man's primary responsibility visibly seen in the area of market work (employment), whilst the women take on the responsibility for domestic work.

In addition, it can be argued that the distinct feminine ways of managing organisational change particularly include the emotional management of change with the use of soft skills. These entail flexibility, sensitivity, patience, interpersonal skills and the ability to mediate and negotiate, and so would be more suitable in the management of organisational change than traditional hard approaches. Ely and Meyerson (2000)

concurred, by stating that softer approaches are more suited to managing organisational change. Such attributes were regarded as feminine signifiers (Loden, 1985, and Helgeson, 1990). The feminine outlined attributes according to Ernst (2003) were those deemed to be most effective in managing the emotional aspect of organisational change.

Women were classified as emotional managers of change, because they were able to empower involved employees through employee participation and commitment (Adler et al., 1993, Carnall, 1990, Ferrario, 1991 and Loden, 1985). Women were asserted to have possessed and practised these soft skills. In this regard, Hochschild (1983) and Tyler and Tailor (1998 and 2001) positioned women as performing interpersonal functions conflating safety and services. This ensures security in times of unanticipated turbulence, as well as responding to the needs of others. However, many writers, like Rosener (1990), argue that such attributes bring to the workplace a combination of transferable work skills, such as interpersonal communication skills, consensus building, team working, negotiation and multi-tasking (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995, and Carnall, 1999).

2.11 WOMEN'S PRESENCE IN LEADERSHIP AND BOARD ROLES

Gender inequalities in the workplace have been studied from different multi-disciplinary backgrounds and perspectives. However, most scholars (e.g., Gherardi and Poggio, 2007, Meyerson and Kolb, 2000, Meyerson and Tompkins, 2007 and Parson and Priola, 2013), attribute gender inequalities to the influence of culture and other related processes and practices that are often taken for granted and mostly left unaddressed. In relation to the area under study, little is known about the gendered nature of organisational change and intervention processes (Hearn 2000). This is why one of the aims of this study is to investigate the impact of gender leadership differences on organisational change

management outcomes. Therefore, this research focuses on exploring the subjective individual experiences and accounts of organisational change managers and recipients of the differences in men's and women's approaches to change scenarios and their impact on OCM outcomes. Organisations where changes take place are highly institutionalised and characterised by a traditional, hierarchical and selective culture that provides opportunities for gender differentiation at all levels, thus aggravating and reproducing institutional and social inequalities (Morley, 1999). In particular, an organisational culture based on hierarchical systems is created on sets of values and beliefs that define a specific configuration of gender roles and stereotypes that tend to disadvantage women in their managerial careers (Parson and Priola, 2013). In such institutionalised workplaces, initiating, implementing and sustaining change may be problematic and difficult because of specific organisational gendered structures.

Women have been historically under-represented compared to men in leadership positions. Min Toh and Leonardelli (2012) provide some cultural explanations for women's under-representation in leadership positions. They argue that the principal issues might be rooted in differences in values, practices and gender roles, which can be attributed to cultural tightness, and to the strengths of the norms and social sanctions of organisations that historically place men in significant leadership positions over women (Min Toh and Leonardelli, 2012). They postulate that societies that have tighter cultures (societies with many strong norms or standards and a low tolerance of different behaviour contrary to the dominant norms of the society) might yield fewer women representatives in top leadership positions. Furthermore, societies or nations with a tighter culture moderate the extent to which egalitarianism (a school of thought that promotes equality for all people) is practised. Conversely, Min Toh and Leonardelli (2012) deduce that loose

cultures (with weak social norms or standards and a high tolerance of deviant behaviour) are more likely to be receptive to changes in existing cultural practices, which will accommodate and encourage egalitarianism. However, according to Min Toh and Leonardelli (2012), tighter cultures may be more successful in implementing and sustaining such changes.

According to Vinnicombe et al. (2015) there used to be a considerable lack of women in corporate leadership positions in most organisations in the past few decades. However, this has significantly improved in the last few years, especially with the Lord Davies target of women accounting for 25 per cent of boards by 2015 for the FTSE 100 companies. The UK has also been on a remarkable drive to increase the number of women on 350 FTSE boards (Women on Boards, 2015). The Women on Boards (2015) review reports that there are more women on the 350 FTSE boards than ever before, with women's representation now at 26.1 per cent on FTSE 100 boards and 19.6 per cent on FTSE 250 boards, from 7.8 per cent in 2011 and 18 per cent in 2014 (Vinnicombe et al., 2015).

There are also some good reductions in the number of all-male boards. To be precise, there were 152 all-male representations in 2011 and presently there seem to be no all-male boards in the FTSE 100 and only 15 in the FTSE 250. This appears to have been a result of the 25 per cent target of women on FTSE 100 boards set by Lord Davies. In 2012, all listed companies were required to disclose their diversity policies, boardroom targets and progress. Chairmen were also required to disclose how they handled the board of directors' appointment process and how gender diversity was being managed within the companies. There has been a huge progress in gender diversity in the respective

companies as women's boardroom representation has almost doubled, and the previous poor figures of women's representation and all-male boards in the FTSE 100 have drastically reduced (Vinnicombe et al., 2015). According to Vinnicombe et al. (2015), the increasing gender balance in organisations is attributed to the leadership and determination of so many senior business leaders who were keen to address the gender gap on their boards and within organisations. In addition, the government also played a role by organising networking events between chairmen and female board candidates to showcase the breadth of talents of both sexes. Government was also reported to have supported organisations to develop women (Vinnicombe et al., 2015). However, there is still a lot to be done on empowering women to be actively engaged in boardroom representation.

Consequently, the next section reviews and analyses a way forward for addressing the gendered or glass ceiling nature of organisational change management and leadership in organisations. The section adopts the feminist construct of organisational leadership and management through an analysis of critical feminist movements in organisations and in society as a whole.

2.12 THE IMPACT OF GENDER STEREOTYPES ON MANAGERIAL AND LEADERSHIP PRACTICES IN ORGANISATIONS

This section examines the extent to which gender stereotyping within the workplace influences the manner in which organisational processes such as change programmes are approached and managed. This is due to assertions that organisational approaches that encourage gender diversity have met limited success with regard to female managers' participation in decision making (Syed and Murray, 2008).

Syed and Murray (2008) argue that organisations are characterised by a gender hierarchy expressed through masculine values and structures embedded in gender relations of male privilege (often seen as male hegemony) and female disadvantage. Therefore, two significant factors of the feminist construct and the gendered nature of organisations will be analysed. First, masculine hegemony, which refers to the dominant social position of male leaders and employees, will be explored, along with the subordinate social position of female leaders and employees, drawing on Connell's (2005) inference on male and female leaders' organisational disposition. Second, the distinct values that male and female leaders can bring into general managerial practices such as Organisational Change Management will also be discussed. The focal argument and emphasis of this analysis is that workplace structures are expected to value feminine attributes often exhibited by female leaders along with masculine attributes often exhibited by male leaders in order to have an equitable participation of both sexes in significant managerial processes.

In order for organisations to have an effective management of change programmes in organisations, gender stereotypes in the society and of course in organisations need to be acknowledged and modified from the prevailing masculine hegemony to include feminine values as part of organisational routines and structures. This may entail focusing on increasing women's participation in managerial positions and significant decision-making processes due to women's under-representation in managerial positions.

This chapter and the research as a whole also build on the theory of gender diversity in managing change programmes in organisations by demonstrating the relationship between feminine values, masculine values and OCM. The discussions examine how both feminine and masculine values and attributes can bring success to the management of

change programmes in organisations. Feminine and masculine values and attributes in the discussions are not meant to magnify gender clash but to suggest values and attributes that may be developed and exhibited by men and women irrespective of their gender. The focal argument of this section is that feminine values are traditionally often attributed to women and as such leave women in the workplace relatively disadvantaged and disempowered (Parson and Priola, 2013).

Furthermore, it is worth noting that it is men that are far more hegemonic than masculinity, and it may not necessarily be accurate that it is only men that exhibit masculine traits (Parson and Priola, 2013). This is because some women tend to demonstrate or exhibit masculine traits that are historically attributed to men. Perhaps women's masculine traits can be attributed to the conventional approaches of gender diversity management such as the sameness paradigm. Syed and Murray (2008) describe the sameness paradigm as men and women's exhibition of similar traits and sameness in work situations. Syed and Murray (2008) argue that the sameness paradigm devalues feminine values and attributes often associated with women. This is because sameness paradigm encourages female leaders' adoption of masculine structures and leadership or management styles, because they want to prove themselves to be competent and to be accepted by society and organisations (Syed and Murray, 2008).

Thus, in unravelling and challenging masculinity, the focus is on the hegemony of men, and the fact that organisations are characterised by men and created for men's operation (Hearn, 2004). The contributions of women in decision-making processes are often overlooked, which consequently increases gender bias and promotes male hegemony in the workplace (Hearn, 2004). This can be interpreted as women having a certain degree

of say in organisations, but are often ignored in the end. The next section explores the feminist approach to managing organisational processes such as change management and suggests that women in general have specific attributes, characteristics and skills that are very beneficial to organisational effectiveness and as such should not be under-rated or negated. The discussions and focal emphasis is a consideration of gender-inclusive methodology in management of organisational processes such as change programmes.

2.13 FEMINIST APPROACH TO MANAGING ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Parson and Priola (2013) suggest the need for organisations and society to integrate the skills and talents of both sexes into a cohesive corporate culture. With the emergence of equality movements, it is encouraging to see an increasing number of women securing top management positions. However, it is evident that gender differences and the sources of these differences still exist and must be clearly understood and addressed (Syed and Murray, 2008). The absence of the knowledge of gender dynamics, the differences and associated benefits, could result in organisations failing to completely utilise the intrinsic strengths and benefits that both sexes can offer (Connell, 2005). In addressing the prevailing masculine hegemony, Syed and Murray (2008) suggest recognition of feminine values and encouragement of an increased participation of women in top management positions. Additionally, Syed and Murray's (2008) study accentuates the need for masculine and feminine models to coexist so that managerial teams and organisations can reap the benefits from the best gender attributes that can be offered by both sexes. The suggestions offered by Syed and Murray were also congruent with that of Ku'sku' et al. (2007), who remarked that gender representation is only one dimension

of the gendered nature of management and leadership in organisations, as there are several complex forms of gender.

Therefore, addressing gender gaps that exist in the work place may require multi-layered and multidimensional programmes to tackle the gender-gap issues (Syed and O'zbilgin, 2007). According to Ku'sku' et al. (2007), the strategies to increase women's participation in significant managerial roles may not return the expected outcome unless they are accompanied by multilevel strategies that will be able to transform gendered organisational cultures that encourage masculine hegemony. Consequently, it may not be possible to address the prevailing male or masculine hegemony by mere anti-discriminatory action; social and organisational change may be required both within and outside of organisations (Singh et al., 2004).

According to Singh et al. (2004), organisational leaders should redesign jobs and work systems to make them responsive to the strengths of female and male employees. This they suggest can be done by increasing gender-mixed or balanced managerial positions to make the job and work system redesign successful (Nahavandi and Aranda, 1994). Organisational routines and managerial structures can be arguably built in a way that accommodates and combines masculine and feminine traits – strategic thinking and communication skills (Syed and Murray, 2008). This is because both masculine and feminine values bring a wealth of benefits to organisations and both sexes have things to learn from working together as a combined synergetic team (Powell, 1988).

The next section explores the concepts of masculine hegemony (with a particular emphasis on men) in the society and the workplace. The second section explores feminine (with a particular emphasis on women) attributes that may be useful for driving

organisational change management to achieve the desired outcome. The central argument is that workplace structures are required to value feminine attributes, along with masculine attributes, and to ensure the equitable participation of both men and women in significant management decisions or positions.

2.13.1 MALE HEGENOMY IN THE WORKPLACE AND SOCIETY

This section is informed by the feminist approach to managing and leading organisational processes. It highlights the predominant masculine stereotypes within the workplace and society and how this causes difficulties in attaining gender equality (Alcoff, 1989). This study acknowledges that gender equality and integration are not yet at the expected level, even with the existence of the various equality movements. Furthermore, the study suggests that male hegemony needs to be highlighted and confronted in order to improve women's participation in organisational managerial positions and also in societal contexts.

Success in diversity management may be somewhat difficult to achieve if feminine unique values and attributes are not well understood by managers and employees. According to Bing and Bergvall (1997) and Remlinger (1997), ideas about gender identities are characterised by influential hierarchies often created, reinforced and pivoted by males and perhaps masculinity. Research (e.g., Connell, 1995 and Nicholson, 1994) further suggests that sex and gender are closely inter-related despite some significant gender differences. Sex is described as a genetic and biological attribute of men and women, and gender is described as a social construct. Essentially, this study uses the term “gender” to refer to socially constructed classifications that reflect the varying experiences of people based on their biological sex (Lorber and Farrell, 1991).

In today's society and organisations, it appears that women remain visibly marginalised on the basis of socio-cultural stereotypes (Ibarra, 1993; Konrad et al., 1992; Syed, 2007, 2008a and b). Gender differences alongside societal norms have created a hierarchical structure of women's marginalisation that awards men higher status and authority compared to women (Ibarra, 1993; Ridgeway, 1991). According to Arnot (1982), women and men's gendered identities tend to be externalised through their language and behaviour, which are largely determined by their daily activities and cultural interpretations of related activities (Butler, 1990). Similarly, Schneider and Littrell (2003) assert that patterns of male and female leadership behaviours and differences may vary across different cultures.

Organisations are faced with increasing dynamic and competitive environments that require the establishment of fundamental work teams to achieve organisational strategic objectives (Elsass and Graves, 1997; Kirkman and Rosen, 2000). Consequently, there is a renewed focus on the composition of management teams and how diverse teams include the significant roles that women are expected to play in improving organisational capabilities and strategic outcomes. Institutional and societal pressures to have a diversified management representation, such as equal opportunity and affirmative laws, in many countries such as the United Kingdom, have truly enabled increasing participation of women in the labour market (Skirdad, 2009).

Arguably, women appear to be the out-group that is often disadvantaged and classified as gender tokens. Rather than being comfortable and fitting into the present situation of gender stereotypes in the society and organisation, this study aims to devise ways to promote women's participation in significant management decisions and positions in

pursuit of a gender-diversified management of organisational processes such as change programmes.

Perrons (2016) from the Knowledge Exchange reports that there is an increasing pressure on Britain to introduce mandatory quotas for senior managerial positions across the UK's private and public sectors. The mandatory quotas are said to represent a minimal condition for securing equal managerial participation through the introduction of gender-equitable policies in organisations. The relevance of the mandatory quotas is demonstrated in the UK's figure of 25 per cent female boardroom representation; this is considerably lower than Norway's female boardroom representation, where mandatory quotas were enforced about ten years ago, resulting in 40 per cent female boardroom representation. However, according to the 2016 Knowledge Exchange report on confronting gender inequality, the attained 40 per cent is said to have been achieved through voluntary business-led change driven by Lord Davies' high-profile review into Women on Boards (Perrons, 2016). Since the review in 2011, the number of women on UK boards has doubled. A remarkable example can be seen from the scene of a mining company, Glencore, the last FTSE 100 Company with an all-male board. Glencore was openly lambasted some years back for failing to appoint women to their managerial positions. In the long run, Glencore bowed to the pressure and appointed Patrice Merrin to the team, although as a non-executive director. However, this happened without mandatory quotas.

Societal gender stereotypes play a crucial role in how women are treated in the workplace – e.g. gender discrimination against women in employment processes (Davison and Burke, 2000 and Perry et al., 1994). Feminist scholars (e.g., Cockburn, 1991, Hearn and

Parkin, 1995 and Rigg and Sparrow, 1994) argue that the gendered nature of organisational dynamics inclines towards predominantly favouring masculine values while feminine values are often downplayed and ignored. Essentially, in most organisations, work structures and norms reflect masculine values that strongly reinforce the status of male workers (Pettigrew and Martin, 1987). Furthermore, organisational environments and culture are often characterised by a masculine domain that not only comprises men, but is also dominated by male-oriented values, norms, symbols and operations (Sinclair, 1994). Consequently, this creates barriers to the maximum participation of women (Hood and Koberg, 1994).

Syed and Murray (2008) purport that there have been reports of women experiencing political power games, unwritten rules, hidden information, constant changes and restructuring and being kept in the dark. These are essential issues that marginalise women, and that are perceived to be strategies to keep men in power (Kirner and Rayner, 1999). Hence, female managers are historically accorded lesser authority than male managers (Reskin and Ross, 1995) and are given fewer challenging responsibilities and lower levels of responsibility (Lyness and Thompson, 1997; Martell and DeSmet, 2001).

Consequently, women are often deterred from fully participating in high-quality tasks and social interactions (Syed and Murray, 2008). Essentially, women seem to have been set up to fail and are being appointed to risky positions while men are in more stable positions. This goes with the slogan that says ‘think crisis; think female’. This was evidenced in Haslam and Ryan’s (2008) examination of the FTSE 100 companies’ performances pre- and post-appointment of new boards of directors. It was realised that the organisations that appointed women as board of directors seemed to have experienced

consistent poor performance in the preceding five to six months. Their work eventually developed into the identification and development of a phenomenon known as the ‘glass cliff’ and ‘think crisis; think female’. The model deals with the perception that female leaders are more likely to occupy positions that are precarious with a high risk of failure (Haslam and Ryan, 2008). This may be due to women being appointed to manage organisations or units that are already in crisis, and not being given the necessary resources and support to succeed. Therefore, it appears that women are more likely than men to experience a glass cliff (women’s leadership positions are precarious or risky) after breaking through the glass ceiling (Ryan, Haslam and Clara, 2010).

The following section discusses the feminine values that may be useful for organisational effectiveness. This section’s analysis is of the perception that recognising and valuing unique feminine qualities might help to address the prevailing male hegemony that exists within the workplace and society.

2.13.2 WORKPLACE FEMININE VALUES

McCrea and Ehrich (2000) and Syed and Murray (2008) define feminine values as culturally defined values that are historically associated with women, which entail concern for others, nurturance, empathy and collaboration. Many authors (e.g., Chorn, 1995; Loden, 1987; Rogers, 1988; Trinidad and Normore, 2005) highlight the importance of feminine values in organisations as a way of counteracting the prevalent masculine pattern of management. Additionally, cultural feminism questions the liberal feminist aim of attaining the same rights as men by concentrating on the unique values often displayed by women, which helps to unravel the masculine norms and routines strongly embedded in today’s society and workplace. This section applies a cultural feminist approach to acknowledge and accentuate the unique qualities often associated with femininity

(women in the context of this study). Recognising and valuing feminine qualities, cultural feminism might counter the dominant masculine or male-oriented structures in the present society and organisations. This could be done by restructuring the organisational structures that are likely to empower men and devalue women's values, and by reforming the education and political arena in a way that accommodates and appreciates feminine qualities and patterns of leadership.

This study acknowledges that feminine values may also be possessed by men and that masculine values may also be possessed by women (Syed and Murray, 2008 and Rodriguez, 2013). The main emphasis is that women as a group remain disadvantaged – mostly as a result of their feminine characteristics and qualities. However, Schneider and Littrell (2003) argue that it is not the feminine attributes exhibited by women that disempower women, as there are men who also exhibit feminine attributes but still enjoy masculine hegemony. Schneider and Littrell (2003) are of the view that it is the national or sector culture of the specific organisation that determines the acceptance and value placed on the leader. This study also notes that cultural feminism has regressed in the literature on diversity and equal participation and that it has been suppressed by other more dominant and hegemonic perspectives, such as liberal feminism, which promotes women's and men's sameness (Syed and Murray, 2008 and Rodriguez, 2013). The other perspective is radical feminism, which is interested in weakening the segregation between the public and private sphere while discrediting the multicultural perspectives on feminism, in a departure from the mainstream literature on feminism (Syed and Murray, 2008 and Rodriguez, 2013).

This section examines specific feminine qualities that could potentially improve organisational processes in a gender diverse context. Whilst acknowledging that there are a number of differences and preferences in male and female workforce participation, there are a few arguments relating to the specific contributions that unique feminine values and qualities offer to organisations. For example, how females communicate and their interpersonal patterns can positively impact on organisational productivity. According to Syed and Murray (2008) and Rodriguez (2013), a gender-diversified approach towards the construction and operationalisation of workplace participation may result in an egalitarian and cohesive work culture that will impact on organisational productivity and processes. Reviewed and discussed below are three specific unique feminine values that may result in organisational success, as highlighted by Syed and Murray (2008).

Nurturance:

Nurturing is described as a core element of the female experience and psychology (Alcoff, 1989). From a feminist approach, women appear to value intimacy and an ethical concern for those connected to them. Intimacy and connectedness are treated as a precious contribution by women in a society. Feminist constructs treat women's unique qualities and abilities, such as art and craft making, narrative capacity, critical eye, attention to detail, caring, celebrative and empathic heart, as very significant. There is the assumption that gender equality may attain the expected outcome if societies and organisations accept and respect the feminine differences in male and female qualities and values; there are core biological and social dissimilarities that have been identified from male and female differences (West, 1988). There is some evidence that nurturing is associated with feminine values and achievement associated with masculine values. This describes the extent to which values such as assertiveness, performance success, and competition sway

over tenderness, quality of life, and warm interpersonal relationships. Within standardised organisational practices, masculine values are generally more dominant and they downplay the team and cooperative behaviours mostly associated with feminine qualities (Claes, 1991 and Trinidad & Normore, 2005).

Gender Communication Pattern:

The second unique feminine value is women's communication pattern. Women and men generally have different communication strategies that also reflect their behavioural patterns (Syed and Murray, 2008). Similarly, men and women's public discourses are visibly different (Claes, 1991). For example, Fischer and Glejim (1992) exemplified men's and women's communication strategies and patterns, with the "crab basket – involvement of everyone" attributed to women, and the "pecking order – hierarchical position is clear to everyone" attributed to men. In addition, it was observed that women expect to wait their turn before speaking and tend to exhibit fairness in their judgement, whereas men are said to compete in most situations in order to establish a winner (Syed and Murray, 2008). For instance, men's swiftness in taking charge by talking more than their female counterparts in board meetings indirectly influences the agenda of the conversation. In this instance, power through speech is indeed more about influential participants regulating the contributions of those with less power (Fairclough, 1989). Consequently, female voices in organisations and society are marginalised and their communication pattern remains undervalued within organisations.

A number of characteristics can be linked to women's communication patterns. These include: women's use of imperatives in communication patterns, such as making task requests; avoidance of conflicts and aggression; often saying sorry and taking responsibility for their actions; following an open-door policy; giving importance to

personal relationships; and often seeking approval before carrying out actions (Syed and Murray, 2008). In addition, Haselhuhn et al.'s (2014) research on gender and negotiation revealed gender differences in men and women's negotiation and bargaining styles, which is part of the essential skills required for an effective management of change programmes in organisations. This means that unless organisations and societies expand their thinking patterns and systems to include both women's and men's unique potential, organisations will remain impoverished in managing gender diversity (Claes, 1991). However, irrespective of the popular belief that feminine language generally lacks power and strength (Lakoff, 1975), it can be redefined as a valuable interactional skill that can be utilised in managerial positions. Consequently, women's language could be described as feminine but not without value (Claes, 1991). Feminine communication goals are generally different from the masculine adopted modes and strategies. Men value hierarchy and women value interpersonal relationships. Feminine collective values, listening and talking skills, free-flowing interactions, and collaboration, may be potentially useful for building productive organisations, as highlighted by Murray and Syed (2006).

Leadership Style:

There are a number of significant gender differences in the leadership discourse. For example, women are found to be more transformational-oriented in their leadership pattern than men with similar jobs, education and age (Rosener, 1990). Similarly, female leaders are reported to emphasise the team approach and team building when compared to men, and they are more people-oriented than their male counterparts (Murray and Syed 2006). Contrary, male leaders are considered more paternalistic and authoritarian than their female counterparts (Rigg and Sparrow, 1994). Kousez and Posner (1990)

accentuate the fact that female leaders are more likely to provide constructive feedback to their teams and are able to put their words into action when compared to male leaders. Furthermore, Kabacoff (1998) highlighted that women are rated higher on people skills relative to men, such as sensitivity to others, ability to listen, and developing effective relationships with peers and managers. Essentially, feminine styles can be considered as social-expressive because of the personal attention that they give to their followers, colleagues and the workplace (Claes, 1991). On the contrary, the masculine style is described as instrumental and instruction giving. Helgesen's (1990) study argues that women's work routines are generally more flexible, less mechanical and complex, and include an interpersonal or humane orientation. Men's routines are generally more demanding, quite mechanical, and motivated more by tasks than personal relationships. From a critical reflection and leadership ecology, women have unique abilities to avoid or resolve disputes, and to work in a team towards common organisational objectives (Murray and Syed, 2006). The feminine skills highlighted here are essential skills that may be relevant for the effective and successful management of organisational processes such as change processes in organisations. Similar findings have been reported by other researchers e.g., Rigg and Sparrow (1994) suggest that males place a greater emphasis on power, competency, efficiency and achievement, and fear not being good enough.

Developing the work of Pounder and Coleman (2002) and Rigg and Sparrow (1994) on leadership, the emphasis placed on a team approach by female leaders appears to be congruent with the study of Australian leaders conducted by Hubbard et al. (2002). Hubbard et al. (2002) reported that the Australian workforce prefer "low-key" leaders who are not particularly charismatic but tactful in developing teams and building strong relationships. Furthermore, the Australian workforce also prefers facilitative leaders who

are able to offer consistent guidance and encouragement to their workforce (Whiteley and Hessian, 1996 cited in Hubbard *et al.*, 2002).

Similarly, another study of 100 successful leaders and 500 subordinates conducted by Whiteley and Hessian (1996) was along the lines of Hubbard's *et al.* (2002) findings of female leader's attributes with regard to a passionate connectedness to others, a deep commitment to creating meaning, and a capacity to inspire and develop (Whiteley and Hessian, 1996:197). Both studies appear to attribute women with the characteristics of facilitative leaders, i.e. connectedness, the capacity to offer guidance, and to inspire and develop. However, further research may be required to empirically validate the connection between the characteristics of a facilitative leader and female managers. There is nonetheless greater evidence for feminine values improving the effective leadership of organisational processes such as management of change in organisations.

Schein's (1973) empirical investigations of managerial sex role stereotyping revealed that "think manager – think male" was a strongly held leadership phenomenon among middle managers in the United States. Both male and female participants in Schein's (1973) research were of the opinion that the characteristics associated with successful organisational management were assumed to be held by men rather than by women, due to male leaders' transactional leadership behaviour (Schein, 1975 cited Schein 2001).

The next section discusses the impact of gender token on organisational processes.

2.14 GENDER DIVERSITY AND THE IMPACT OF GENDER TOKEN ON ORGANISATIONAL PROCESSES

Murray and Syed (2006) assert that the proportion of men and women in managerial positions in organisations has implications for general management practices. Delving

further, studies on gender token suggest that gender is more prominent in managerial team composition. The concept of gender token describes the number of people that constitute less than 15 per cent of the entire group or team composition (Koch et al., 2005). It can be argued that gender token is widely practised in the managerial composition of leaders in organisations (e.g. Frink et al., 2003). Consequently, Kanter (1977) reports that women are more disadvantaged and disempowered, which makes them token women and more likely to have their mistakes amplified, with themselves socially isolated and assigned to roles that undermine their status. According to McDonald et al. (2004), women are affected by the negative outcomes of gender tokens. Yoder and Sinnett, (1985) cited in Murray and Syed (2006: 421) articulates the negative outcomes of gender tokens in organisations as “increased visibility, a sense of social distance and isolation from their co-workers, increased assimilation into stereotypes, and increased pressure to perform better”. In contrast, token men enjoy more promotions from their token status without active pursuit of that promotion, given more power and responsibilities to enhance their advancement (Yoder & Sinnett, 1985 cited in Murray and Syed, 2006: 421).

On the other hand, Cohen and Swim (1995) highlight that token women have more negative experiences working in a male-dominated group. Furthermore, women and men in gender-token positions are generally likely to act more in line with their gender roles than other team members (McDonald et al., 2004). The male token perception is very dominant compared to the perception of token women (Koch et al., 2005). Gender-token experiences appear to affect women’s career progression, whereas their effect on men is very minute, as they have little or no effect (Murray and Syed, 2006). Arguably, women’s participation and performance in significant management positions will remain constrained by masculine norms and values unless women’s under-representation in

managerial positions and acceptance of their work pattern in organisations are addressed accordingly. Essentially, it may remain difficult to manage gender diversity in organisations.

It is argued that women in organisations cannot reach their full potential unless the existing organisational managerial structures and routines consider gender-inclusive approaches and structures. Diverse groups often marginalise some team members on the basis of their demographic attributes and those often being marginalised are women, which in turn negates the benefits of gender diversity (Hood and Koberg, 1994 and Syed, 2008a). Essentially, there is an increasing need for women and men to work towards a common goal rather than the on-going upheaval of gender struggle (Karakowsky and Miller, 2002). This section demonstrates that a major step to creating gender-inclusive or gender-balanced management of changes in organisations is to inculcate a corporate cultural change that provides a clear understanding of gender dynamics and their implications for managerial teams' evolution and change.

Kotur & Anbazhagan (2014) and Huang et al. (2011) infer that certain factors such as leaders' age and gender, and followers' gender and behaviour, may influence leaders' choice of leadership style and the male and female leadership differences that may exist. This leads to the next section on reviewing the impact of leaders' age and gender, and followers' gender and behaviour, on leadership styles and behaviour.

2.15 THE IMPACT OF LEADERS' AGE AND FOLLOWERS' GENDER AND BEHAVIOUR ON LEADERSHIP STYLE AND BEHAVIOUR

Among other possible demographics of leaders such as height, experience and education, leaders' gender and age, and the behaviour and gender of followers have received some

considerable attention (Fiedler, 1967, Huang et al., 2011 and Howard & Bray 1988). Most notably, Eagly & Johnson, (1990) in their analysis of gender and leadership, realised that men and women exhibit some differences in their leadership styles. However, the leadership differences may be influenced by certain factors such as the age of the leader, as well as the gender and behaviour of the follower (Belal et al., 2010, Huang et al., 2011, and Kotur & Anbazhagan, 2014). Similarly, Feingold (1994) and Halpern (1997) argue that any existing differences in male and female leadership may exist as a result of confounding relationships with other leadership traits such as leaders' intelligence, age, personality and the gender and behaviour of their followers. In contrast, Chingle (2016), in his research on the effect of traits on leadership styles, argues that leaders may only be exhibiting traits and not necessarily gender differences in their leadership style and behaviour.

A study conducted by Kotur and Anbazhagan (2014) in the Chittoor Sugar Factory located in Chittoor posited that the democratic leadership style is a dominant and the most preferred leadership style in most organisations. However, the study revealed that the leaders' age and gender, and the followers' gender and behaviour, affected the leader's choice of leadership style. It is perceived that at a certain age an older workforce may not be able to perform some tasks with the same efficiency as younger people, for instance, being assigned some complicated software to carry out organisational operations or tasks. Vice versa, there are certain tasks that older people can do better than younger people. For example, older people can give better advice in certain organisational situations than younger people, perhaps due to their substantial organisational work experiences (Belal et al., 2010). An increase in leaders' age significantly leads to older leaders exhibiting

less authority, which inclines towards the adoption of democratic and transformational leadership models, drawing on Kotur and Anbazhagan's (2014) research.

Managers and leaders tend to understand their subordinates better as they grow older, both in their job and in life in general. Thus, they are able to deal and relate better with their followers (Ojode et al., 1999 and Kotur & Anbazhagan, 2014). Generally speaking, effective leadership can be attributed to the leaders' ability to understand their subordinates in order to complete the task. Consequently, older leaders were described as better and more effective leaders than younger leaders, due to their substantial experience in leadership scenarios (Mirani et al., 2013 and Kotur & Anbazhagan, 2014). However, an older workforce may have slower cognitive processes relative to their younger counterparts. Newton et al. (2005) infer that fast-cognitive processing in managerial situations may place mental and emotional pressure on older leaders during organisational change-related learning processes. Cognitive processing in this context refers to the various mental processes involved in acquiring knowledge and comprehension: thinking, remembering, knowing, judging and problem solving (Preston and Shipton, 2015).

According to Huang et al. (2011), organisational leaders are now recognising the need to modify their leadership styles in varying work situations and in the event of organisations changing their work ethos and processes. Several scholars (e.g., Dvir & Shamir, 2003 and Howell & Shamir, 2005) argue that effective leadership is a collaborative phenomenon that is jointly produced by leaders and followers. It was further observed that the most traditional perspective in the leadership literature mainly focuses on leaders and pays less attention to the role that followers play in shaping their leader's style and behaviour (Dvir & Shamir, 2003; Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Yukl, 2006). However, in recent times some

efforts have been made by researchers (e.g., Huang et al., 2011) who stress the active role and influence of followers on leadership processes. Essentially, Kotur and Anbazhagan (2014) and Huang et al. (2011) suggest that male and female followers significantly differ in their behaviours in many ways and that the stated differences in followers' behaviour may possibly have an impact on leaders' behaviour and their choice of leadership preferences. Winter et al. (2001) attribute the followers' differences in behaviour and gender to the differences in male and female functioning in varying organisational scenarios.

2.16 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter concludes that male and female leaders may differ in their leadership style, and that this might have an impact on OCM (Adichie, 2013 and Paton and Dempster, 2002). The extant literature suggests that different management styles can be applied to different change situations, and it maintains that there are certain characteristics required of organisational change leaders and managers if success is to be attained (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979). Regardless of preferences or gender differences, there is no best method or style for leading and managing organisational change (Senior and Fleming, 2006). Multiple styles of leadership are further required to effectively implement and enact most forms of changes in organisations (Reardon et al., 1998).

Furthermore, Stewart (1996) asserts that change is both continuous and uncertain, and that any kind of change will generate other changes. In addition, an analysis of the significance of communication suggests that change agents, practitioners and managers must ensure that communications are transparent and timely (Paton and Dempster, 2002).

This chapter established that there has been a considerable lack of women in managerial positions in past decades, according to the Vinnicombe et al. (2015). However, women's under-representation in managerial positions has significantly improved in the last few years, especially following Lord Davies' target of 25 per cent female representation in the boardroom by 2015 for FTSE 100 companies.

Furthermore, the chapter explored masculine hegemony, which refers to the dominant social position of male leaders and employees and the subordinate social position of female leaders and employees, using Connell's (2005) inference on male and female leaders' organisational disposition. Also, this chapter demonstrated and created awareness of the distinct values that male and female leaders can bring into general managerial practices such as Organisational Change Management.

According to Huang et al. (2011) and Kotur & Anbazhagan (2014), existing differences in male and female leadership may exist as a result of confounding relationships with other leadership traits such as leaders' intelligence, age, personality as well as the gender and behaviour of followers. Essentially, the chapter reviewed the fact that leaders' leadership preferences or styles may be influenced by leaders' age and gender, and followers' gender and behaviour.

The next chapter is a further review of OCM processes, gender and leadership practices from an African/Nigerian context, where data was collected.

3 CHAPTER 3: OVERVIEW OF OCM PRACTICES IN AFRICA, NIGERIA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the theoretical framework or literature review of this research, while this chapter continues with further analysis of some existing literatures on OCM and leadership practices in Africa, with more emphasis on Nigeria, this being the sample population of the present study.

This chapter is presented in seven main sections. **Section 1** presents an overview and the geographical context of Nigeria. **Section 2** reviews existing OCM practices in Nigeria and **Section 3** provides further reviews on organisational change resistive behaviours in Nigeria and how such resistive behaviours were addressed and managed in the country. **Section 4** discusses certain external factors such as religion, culture, social and value systems that may be affecting successful implementation of change programmes in African/Nigerian organisations. **Section 5** presents an analysis of gender and African leadership constructs in developing countries. The last two **Sections 6** and **7** reviews national and sector culture constructs and how these may affect the leadership styles, behaviours and preferences of organisational change leaders.

3.2 SECTION 1: OVERVIEW AND GEOGRAPHICAL CONTEXT OF NIGERIA

Nigeria, known as the Federal Republic of Nigeria, is situated in West Africa, with an estimated population of over 158.3 million (Trading Economics, 2011). It is the most populous country in the African Continent (Internet World Stats, 2010). The country has an abundant supply of petroleum, gas and agricultural and large untapped solid mineral resources (Obadan, 2002). The country has also experienced great political instability since its independence from British rule in 1960. This has stirred social tension, causing an unpredictable business market (Onuorah, 2009).

Nigeria is also categorised or grouped under the developing countries. Developing countries are those with low incomes and standards of living, usually along with a reduced access to goods and services when compared to developed countries with a high income, such as Western areas (Leslie and Gaskill, 2006). They are also regarded as countries that have not yet reached a stage of industrialised growth, where people live on far less money and have a lack of public services when compared to highly-developed countries (Bannock, 2005). Due to the lack of basic necessities (e.g., the provision of power supply and other necessities) in developing countries such as Nigeria, people tend to reason irrationally. This is when you see erratic behaviours and personalities, organised violence, abuse of all forms etc.

This research is highly significant, as there is an increasing interest in less-developed countries from leading firms offering foreign direct investment opportunities. The overall aim of this study is to examine and explore how male and female leaders approach and manage change scenarios in organisations and the impact that this may have on OCM

outcomes in Nigeria. This study was conducted to pull the motherland from its struggle with change processes or interventions in organisations.

Furthermore, it is worth knowing why this study focused on Nigeria rather than other less-developed or developing countries in Africa. One of the distinctive reasons for focusing on Nigeria is that the country was reported to have attracted more foreign direct investors than any other African country (Ovadjie and Ankomah, 2001). The implication is that, with such progress, changes will be encountered, and these needs to be managed effectively. The inappropriate or ineffective management of such changes would have the adverse effect on both foreign investors and the employees involved in the anticipated change programmes or initiatives. The CIA World FactBook (2015) estimated that Nigeria has a workforce of over 54.97 million, representing the 11th largest labour force in the world. The next section reviews existing OCM practices in Nigeria.

3.3 SECTION 2: OCM PRACTICES IN NIGERIA

Some Nigerian organisations and employees show a lukewarm attitude towards change interventions and initiatives, because of the perceived negative impacts of organisational change processes on employees (Nosakhare, 2000). This is likely to affect change interventions or initiatives, because residents tend to see change as an impediment to progress. Certain factors have been postulated to be responsible for the slow acceptance of such interventions in developing countries. Researchers (Olufemi, 2009 and Olotu, 2012) acknowledge such factors as – organisational factors, lack of technical skills in driving organisational change, environmental factors, lack of communication and many more. Ironically, some employees are likely to be more receptive to changes introduced into organisations in developing countries such as Nigeria as result of the role of culture,

religion and social and value systems (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011). Essentially, some employees in Nigeria tend to be receptive to change because of economical and societal factors beyond their control. This infers that some employees are forced to comply with introduced changes because of cultural, religion and social and value system factors, not necessarily because they wish to comply. There exists therefore a significant need to identify, address and reassess factors impeding the success of change interventions or initiatives in Nigeria. There is also a great need to introduce or provide specific recommendations on how organisations can successfully initiate and manage change programmes.

It is pertinent to explore the current strategies adopted by change managers and the differences in male and female approaches to change management and their likely impact on OCM outcomes, as there are several contextual factors or differences, such as economic factors, culture, religion, social factors and work value systems, which inhibit the successful implementation of organisational change processes in Nigeria (Horwitz, 1995 and Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011). Therefore, providing knowledge on the link between gender and OCM, and the impact of such a link on the successful implementation of organisation change, will provide valuable insights for direct investors, managers and practitioners. This is not only applicable to Nigeria or other less-developed countries, but also to developed countries such as the UK and the USA.

Nigeria is currently going through a series of economic and financial crises (Aderibigbe, 2014). In addressing the on-going crisis in the economy, it is becoming more and more important for organisations to remain innovative and competitive. However, Adeboye (2014) warns of the dangers of some anti-innovative and lethargic people who might pose problems to the successful implementation of organisational change programmes. In

contrast to Adeboye (2014) and Nosakhare's (2000) stance, Olufemi (2009) argues that most organisations and employees in Nigeria are open and amenable to innovative ideas and change interventions.

It is imperative that the management of organisations recognises the need for change in such a developing world. This world is characterised by high levels of competition all around and the need to be aware and prepared for unseen hurdles that may occur later on (Olufemi, 2009). This was clear in his research, which examined the level of organisational change acceptance amongst employees in Nigeria. The acceptance of proposed changes signified employees' readiness, willingness, support and commitment to such initiatives and organisational ideals. Olufemi's (2009) study indicates that participatory approaches had a positive impact on the success of change initiatives and interventions in the country. In the light of the previously reviewed literature in Chapter 2, this brings to mind the inference that most participatory approaches were adopted by female managers.

Speculatively, feministic approaches may be more effective at successfully implementing change interventions or initiatives in the country. Hence, providing knowledge or an understanding of the differences in men and women's change management patterns and their potential impact on the successful implementation of organisational change might provide answers to the existing feminism discourse.

In recent times, Nigeria has undergone some significant changes, such as annualised hours contracts (AHC), flexible work practices and a cashless policy that was introduced and implemented in 2012. The country is, therefore, in need of research such as this, in order to combat the thousands of issues that may be encountered following the

introduction and implementation of these huge changes. To this end, it was perceived that there has been little research conducted on the successful implementation of change management programmes in Nigeria. The question is: are the change programmes taking place in the country effectively and successfully managed, and do they really achieve the expected outcomes? These are some of the things that this study sets to unveil, while proffering some recommendations to contribute to the success of organisational change.

The next section reviews the extant literature on OCM resistive behaviours in Nigeria and addresses how such oppositions can be managed within less-developed countries.

3.4 SECTION 3: MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE RESISTANCE IN NIGERIA

Like every other managerial discourse, the successful implementation of change in organisations depends on certain factors, including the employees' perception of the impact of change processes, their reaction to the change processes and the support from management and leadership for managing the introduced change (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011). If these factors are not properly put into account and enacted, O'Connor (1993) posits that such an initiative or intervention will stir resistance or opposition from employees who have been directly or indirectly affected. Employees' adjustment to change is often evident in their expression of intention to quit, irritation with work and actual employee turnover. In that light, Devos et al. (2002) suggest that combating resistance or opposition largely depends on top management support, time and participation at work, rewards, history of change, the locus of control and job satisfaction.

Chreim (2006) identifies four patterns of responses to change: acceptance, resigned compliance, avoidance/opposition and ambivalence. In addition, Coetsee (1999) highlights a continuum of acceptance and resistive behaviour, with an illustration of

commitment at one end of the continuum and aggressive resistance (evident in strikes, sabotage and boycotts) at the other end of the continuum. Coetsee (1999) was of the view that commitment behavioural traits consist of employees' involvement and support, whilst resistive behaviours are associated with apathy, and active and passive resistance. In explanation of the three main resistive behaviours, apathy resistance is manifested in the employees' distance, inactions and lack of interest. Active resistance is evident in employees expressing opposing views, forming coalitions and asking for third-party interventions such as from trade unions – the Nigerian Labour Congress is one of the predominant trade unions in the country. Passive resistance is associated with the persistence of retaining previous work routines, delay tactics and withdrawal from normal or daily job routines (Lapointe and Rivard, 2005).

Drawing on the discussed potential reactions to organisational change processes, it was paramount to explore differences in the way that both sexes lead and manage organisational change, and whether a gender consideration or its impact can possibly facilitate the success of organisational change in less-developed or developing countries. It is presumed that employee resistance will be low when employees have a good perception and understanding of the change that is to be introduced or implemented (Dent and Goldberg, 1999). Most change programmes, such as a cashless policy, AHC and flexible work practices, tend to have shortcomings due to their innovative and complicated nature. For example, there have been feelings of employee insecurity with the recently introduced cashless policy, AHC and flexible work practices in the country, consequently leading to a high possibility of the mentioned changes being negatively perceived. This will result in employees being less receptive to the introduced changes (Oke, 2005). It can therefore be surmised that less receptive employees or signs of

resistive behaviour may be due to the potential impact of change programmes, a fear of the unknown and the feelings that the anticipated change programmes may go against the normal routine of work (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011).

Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) propose some approaches that organisations can adopt to overcome resistance to change. The approaches they highlighted were: education and communication, the participation and involvement of employees, explicit and implicit coercion, facilitation and support, negotiation and agreement, and manipulation and co-optation. They argue however that, in the midst of these suggested approaches, there is no best strategy for overcoming or mitigating opposition to change, but instead that the success or effectiveness of an adopted strategy is dependent on the best fit that suits the change situation (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979).

Essentially, the success of organisational change programmes is contingent on choosing the strategy that is the best fit for the type of change being implemented. Conversely, O'Connor (1993) argues that the assessment of OCM effectiveness should be based on the extent to which certain organisational change prerequisites are met. The prerequisites O'Connor (1993) are elucidated as: employees' understanding and realisation of the need or relevance of the change, the unanimous end goal that should be attainable, and unanimous confidence in the managers of the anticipated organisational change programme.

In addition, much research (e.g., Dent and Goldberg, 1999, Duck, 1993, Herscovitch and Meyer, 2000, Judge, Thoresen, Pucik and Welbourne, 1999, Judson, 1991 and Wanberg and Banas, 2000) notes the importance of OCM planning and communication, by inferring that resistance or opposition to change may be high if the change programme is

not effectively managed. Conversely, it can be inferred that the effectiveness of OCM is also contingent on the change experience and exposure, senior management commitment and the distinct leadership styles of those who are to lead and manage the change programmes (Johnson, 1990).

The study conducted in Nigeria by Idiagbon-Oke and Oke (2011) deduces that employees are likely to be receptive to change programmes or processes if there is a perceived effective management of organisational change by top management. According to Okafor (2007), if an organisation's workforce is well managed, communicated and trained on new methods of work operations, employees are more likely to welcome and accept the introduced changes. In essence, the effective use of good management practices for managing organisational change will yield a low resistance to change. In contrast, employees may not be compliant or may resist organisational change programmes if there is a perceived ineffective management of organisational change (Wanberg and Banas, 2000).

Arguably, the above assertion may not be applicable to less-developed countries such as Nigeria, meaning that in an African context, the ineffective management of change may not be associated with aggressive resistive behaviour or opposition from members of staff. The results of the global leadership and organisational behaviour study supported by Zagorsek, Jaklic and Stough's (2004) comparative cross-cultural study of leadership styles shows that Nigeria, like other countries in the Sub-Sahara, score high on power distance, uncertainty avoidance, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism and masculinity in Hofstede's (1983) cultural dimension scale. The implication of this organisational behaviour study is that Hofstede's cultural dimensions represent factors

that influence the success or failure of organisational change processes in the country, therefore signifying that employees are likely to resist organisational change processes as a result of the above cultural dimensions.

The next section reviews further factors that influence the outcome of OCM practices in Nigeria, with a focal interest on the role or influence of cultural, religious, social and work value systems on the successful implementation of change processes or interventions in less-developed countries.

3.5 SECTION 4: DETERMINANTS/INFLUENCING FACTORS OF OCM OUTCOMES IN NIGERIA

Working with organisations in developing countries poses a distinctive number of challenges (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011). Some of these might be well-known and others perhaps might only be known or made evident when a project or activity takes place (Monczka and Treent, 1991). Idiagbon-Oke and Oke (2011) posit that cultural, religious, value systems and social factors influence or determine how employees respond or react to changes introduced into an organisation. It is worth noting that other than the above factors, there are also internal (personality) and external (economic stability and organisational support) factors that influence or determine the outcomes of OCM (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011).

Influence of Culture and Religious and Social Factors on Employee Response to OCM

According to Idiagbon-Oke and Oke (2011), cultural, religious and social factors play a significant role in the management of organisational change, especially when assessing employees' reaction to organisational change in an African context.

In Africa, employees or people generally tend to believe in the existence of God and other supernatural beings, who they believe are responsible for their destinies. In expansion of the above, the CIA World FactBook (2015) reports that 50 per cent of the Nigerian population are Muslims, while Christians comprise 40 per cent and 10 per cent consists of peoples with indigenous beliefs. This was made evident in Inglehart and Baker's (2000) traditional value spectrum, which indicated deference to God, family and society; they cited religious beliefs as being most likely to influence people or employees to accept situations as an act of supremacy.

In addition, other contributory factors to resilience and compliance are usually high unemployment, where there is a severe necessity to provide for nuclear family members, and perhaps extended family members. Furthermore, employees are likely to experience job insecurity, compounded by the lack of effective employee relations and human resource management systems (Ovadge and Ankomeh, 2001). When compared to employees in developed countries, this means that employees may not be able to overtly resist or oppose changes suggested or introduced by top management, because they do not want to lose their jobs.

Within the social network in Africa, it is becoming a general norm that family influence and nepotism in employment decisions are facilitated by achievement or societal connectivity, rather than an individual's merit (House et al., 2004). In such situations, it is most likely that the benefitted candidates or employees become 'yes men' to the hiring manager, and thus act as a magnifier to deference to authority (Inglehart and Baker, 2000). Employees under such circumstances may persevere with the high possibility of not being able to overtly resist organisational change programmes as the dynamics of

reciprocity, ingratiation and obligation become primary concerns rather than being vocal about individual concerns. In the Nigerian context, this is referred to as the slogan “Biting the hands that fed you – being in opposition to one’s benefactor” (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011:524-35).

Therefore, employees in such circumstances are more likely to be tolerant of organisational change processes than employees in more developed countries – the latter are more likely to overtly resist, knowing that their rights are well covered and protected.

Influence of Value Systems on Employee Response to OCM

Value systems are said to be associated with deference to the authority of God, family and society and an emphasis on economic and physical security. Value systems are a set of consistent ethical and cultural beliefs in relation to an individual or society that strongly affect the response of employees towards organisational change, particularly in an African context (Spony, 2003 and Wenstop and Myrmel, 2006). Employees may have a high level of anxiety about changes in organisations, not only because the changes are alien to them, but also because of the innovative and complicated nature of the changes. Typical examples of value systems are Hofstede’s high power distance and traditional value systems, which encourage top management to pay little attention to the effective management of organisational change (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011). In addition, a high unemployment rate and intense poverty rate may lead to employees’ vulnerability and their resigned compliance with regard to change programmes (Inglehart and Baker, 2000).

Employees' reactions tend to be similar across many African countries, as they are high on Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance, which refers to the extent to which ambiguity and uncertainties pose threats to members of a specific culture (Hofstede, 1983). Uncertainty avoidance is likely to increase if there is a lack of proper education on the change programme, and a lack of participation and involvement of employees in the implementation of the introduced change. Taking these into account is paramount, as the proper orientation or education of the change programme and employee involvement and participation in the decision-making process are essential ingredients of a patriarchal and paternalistic Nigerian culture (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta, 2004).

3.6 SECTION 5: GENDER AND LEADERSHIP CONSTRUCTS IN AFRICA

Some leadership scholars (Fletcher, 2001 and Yoder, 2001) infer that leadership itself is gendered and is implemented within a gendered context. A research using the Bem Sex Role Inventory indicates that effective leadership behaviours are typically defined as masculine traits (Bem, 1981 and Choi and Fuqua, 2003). Similarly, studies conducted in Japan, Australia, Malaysia and Zimbabwe indicated similar results of masculine traits being more effective in leadership situations (Leung and Moore, 2003; Sugihara and Katsurada, 1999 and Wilson et al., 1990). This is also similar to Schein's (1970) model of 'think manager: think male'.

In recent times, there have been several developments in legislation with the aim of addressing gender discrimination and other forms of inequity in Nigeria, and in Africa as a whole. The government has put a considerable amount of effort into promoting gender equality in African society (Mathur-Helm, 2004). For instance, the Nigerian senate recently proposed a gender and equal opportunity bill aimed at promoting equal rights for

women, and the advancement and development of all persons in Nigeria (Makinde, 2016). While there appears to have been some improvements in African equal rights for both sexes, there is still an under-representation of women in African boardrooms. According to Littrell and Nkomo (2005), female workers in Africa are mostly found in pink-collar jobs, rather than in professional and managerial positions. For example, the first nationwide census of corporate female workers' status in South Africa reported that out of the 364 companies listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange and state-owned enterprises, only seven had female CEOs and 60 per cent did not have female executives on their boards. According to this report, women consist of 41.3 per cent of the South African workforce, but are only 14.7 per cent of executive managers and just 7.1 per cent of all directors, leaving female managers as token women (Business Women's Association, 2004).

Similar to the rest of the world, female workers and executives in Africa also face glass ceiling barriers to managerial progress and upward mobility (Erwee, 1994; Erasmus, 1998; Mathur-Helm, 2002). This was demonstrated in Erasmus' (1998) research on African career women, which infers that in spite of women's education, talents and commitment to their careers, societal and organisational misconceptions and gender stereotypes significantly deter women from progressing up the organisational managerial ladder. Erasmus' (1998) research reported that female leaders were perceived as not having the required leadership potentials because their leadership behaviour and approach differed from that of traditional male leaders.

In one of the few studies of male and female leadership behaviour and style in Africa, Booysen (1999a, 2001) examined African male and female leaders' leadership

differences and similarities in the retail banking sector. Booysen's (2001) study found that African male leaders placed more emphasis on performance, competition and winning, domination, control, and directive leadership. By contrast, African female leaders focused on collaboration, participation, intuition, empowerment, and empathy. Booysen (2001) characterised female leaders from the banking sector as transformational and interactive leaders and male leaders as transactional and command-oriented leaders.

Speaking of African leadership styles, behaviour, models and philosophies, some African managers (both male and female) seem to have adopted an Afro-centric leadership model in leading and managing organisational processes. Scholars (Jackson, 2006, Littrell and Nkomo, 2005 and Karsten and Illa, 2005) assert that the Afro-centric leadership models stem from the concept of the Ubuntu leadership concept. Littrell and Nkomo (2005) advocate that Ubuntu is not a leadership style but a philosophy of African humanism that emphasises collectivism and group-centredness in contrast to individualism. The Ubuntu leadership concept was introduced as a new management philosophy in the South African leadership and management literature to improve co-ordination of personnel in organisations (Lascaris and Lipkin, 1993 and Mbigi and Maree, 1995).

The Ubuntu leadership philosophy integrates Western ideas with African traditions and practices such as power/authority recognition and collectiveness (Micklethwait and Woodridge 1996). The Ubuntu leadership philosophy makes more sense with Booysen's (2001) application of Hofstede's national culture model on African leadership scenarios, as African practices reported higher scores on collectiveness, humane orientation, and gender egalitarianism compared to other Western practices. Booysen's study concluded

that Africans were more people focused, which is consistent with their Ubuntu belief of collectiveness and humane orientation.

Most African organisations appear to be generally over-managed and under-led; quality and growth are regarded as key organisational success factors while job satisfaction and people development were seen as secondary or less important factors (Littrell and Nkomo, 2005). According to Jackson (2006), one of the major challenges in Africa is the fulfilment of the intense need to develop people within the wider society, which in turn will contribute to employment equity and developmental opportunities, and the organisation's ability to remain globally competitive. Louw and Jackson's (2008) study of 199 African organisations revealed certain dominant leadership and management styles. In expatiation, 46 per cent of the companies were autocratic, 33 per cent were collaborative and 12 per cent were participative. In general, Littrell and Nkomo (2005) argued that African management styles were often rigid, bureaucratic, directive, task-oriented, over-centralised, and fairly rule-bound. However, Jackson (2006) argued that there were still elements of consultation management systems in the midst of the bureaucratic and task-oriented management pattern. Interestingly, Louw and Jackson (2008:8) further infer that only "lip service may be paid to participative management style in Africa".

Therefore, certain leadership aspects such as participation, inspiration, vision and effectiveness were said to be lacking. Furthermore, Louw and Jackson (2008) postulated that the leadership styles and management behaviour exhibited by most African leaders and managers suggest a heavy reliance on Western approaches, such as command-oriented and hierarchical structures. Essentially, the post-colonial systems of

management and leadership are still greatly influenced by the colonial systems (Jackson, 2004 and Littrell & Nkomo, 2005).

3.7 SECTION 6: GENDER AND CULTURAL CONSTRUCTS IN AFRICAN LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

Den-Hartog et al. (1999) in their study observed that culture defines gender roles to a great extent in Africa, where biological sex is not the only determining factor that defines being male or female. Societal values and expectations tend to perpetuate gender role stereotypes that expect males to be masculine and females to be feminine (Kilianski, 2000). The said stereotype often varies among different cultures as well as ethnic groups (Landrine, 1985 and Harris, 1994).

However, Berry et al. (1992) argue that it is reasonable to assume the universality of gender stereotypes across different cultures due to the varying psychological characteristics of males and females, historically resulting from the gender division of labour in some societies. According to Williams and Best (1990 and 1994) and Williams et al. (1999), gender stereotypes are the psychological characteristics assumed to be associated with women and men in a particular cultural group. This was linked to the concept of Pan-cultural gender stereotypes, which refers to the psychological characteristics often associated with men and women across many cultural groups. For instance, women are often understood to be more emotional and nurturing than men, while men are understood to be more independent and aggressive than women. The aforementioned analysis is an indication that gender stereotypes may affect leaders' and managers' perceptions of leadership situations.

A number of scholars (Hofstede, 1998 and Den-Hartog et al., 1999) argue that cultural values and traditions influence the attitudes and behaviours of leaders in organisations. Hofstede (1980 and 1998) identified five cultural dimensions and how they impact on the leadership practices and perceptions of different countries. For instance, Hofstede (1998:6-7) argued that the masculinity/femininity cultural dimension differentiates countries and individuals, where masculinity is typically associated with men, who are expected to be assertive, tough and focused on material and physical success. Women, on the other hand, are expected to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. Similarly, the opposite stance, femininity expects both men and women to be modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life (Hofstede, 1998). According to Littrell and Nkomo (2005), in masculine-oriented countries such as Nigeria, decisiveness and ambition are more often attributed to masculine traits, while caring and gentleness are more regarded as feminine traits. In feminine cultures, all of the aforementioned terms were described as being used by both male and female leaders.

According to Louw & Jackson, (2008) and Rodriguez (2013), some of the differences in men and women's leadership preferences and behaviours are influenced by national and sector culture, and the patriarchal social and organisational systems that constrain leaders' choice of leadership/management style. Consequently, the next section examines and discusses the impact of national or sector culture on leadership style and behaviour.

3.8 SECTION 7: THE EFFECTS OF NATIONAL & SECTOR CULTURE ON MANAGER'S CHOICE OF MANAGEMENT STYLE AND BEHAVIOUR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

The aim of this section is to demonstrate an understanding of some influencing factors that affect males' and females' choices of organisational leadership or managerial styles

in developing countries. This is because national cultures in certain societies are reported to endorse autocratic leadership styles while others expect leaders to exhibit participatory behaviours (Kuada, 2010). Drawing on Hofstede's cultural dimensions, Muczyk and Holt (2008) posit that an autocratic leadership style may be most applicable in cultures with high power distance dimension, collectivism, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance. They further associated an autocratic leadership style with societies that have a high regard for hierarchy and a strong chain of command (Muczyk & Holt, 2008). Conversely, democratic leadership styles were considered to be most effectively practised in cultures or societies that are low on power distance, high on individualism and femininity, and low on uncertainty avoidance (Kuada, 2010).

Leadership plays a vital role in the success and growth of organisations (Ahn, Adamson & Dornbusch, 2004). Arguably, the survival of an organisation ultimately depends on the leader's responsiveness and adaptability in adopting an appropriate leadership style that suits the nature of the task and emotion of their subjects (Schimmoeller, 2010). Consequently, organisations require leaders or managers who can adopt an appropriate style that will bring about success of the organisational desired goals and expectations (Bass & Avolio, 1995). With respect to appropriate leadership theories and models in managing organisational change, Burns (1979) states that transformational-transactional leadership theories or models are suitable leadership styles that could be adopted by organisational change leaders and managers. Transformational leadership theories were described as managers' or leader's efforts to inspire the workforce to emotionally identify and internalise the aims and objectives of an organisation, and transactional leadership models were associated with the exchange principles of leading and managing (Nazarian and Atkinson, 2013).

Research in the 1980s argued that both corporate and national culture provide a logical strand for leadership behaviours to be better understood, according to Dorfman et al. (2006). Organisational leadership behaviours and styles are culture-bound because culture provides a frame of reference and guidance for expected behaviours and standards (Kuada, 2010). National culture in the context of this study is defined as the set of beliefs, group of collective habits, values, assumptions and dictates of a particular country, nation or region that distinguishes them from other countries or nations (Hofstede, 2001). These sets of values, beliefs and assumptions are often learnt by the respective people from an early age and hence become part of them. Consequently, an understanding of the national culture of the employees of an organisation is vital because an employee's behaviour, judgement and perception of the workplace may be strongly affected by their national culture (Nazarian and Atkinson, 2013). For example, employees from a developing country may incline towards compliant acceptance of change due to job insecurity issues and cultural values that require employees not to disobey or disrespect their leaders' instructions.

According to Nazarian and Atkison (2013), certain factors are likely to inhibit leaders' leadership preferences and behaviour. One such factor was portrayed to be the influence of national culture on leaders' choice of leadership or managerial pattern. This was evidenced in studies (e.g., Nazarian and Atkison, 2013) that suggest that national culture may have a significant impact on a leader's freedom of choice of leadership or management style in developing countries. This was realised from linking Hofstede's cultural dimensions to organisational leaders' leadership preference in developing countries; it was realised that national culture affects leaders' freedom of management or leadership style. Albeit, Hofstede's model has faced a great deal of criticism on the

grounds that each nation has its own internal diversity and cannot be classified as the same.

The above inference was also acknowledged by Hofstede (1991) himself, who acknowledged that almost every culture and individual can be located on a continuum between the two extremes of his cultural dimension. However, Nazarian and Atkinson (2013) suggested that further research may be required to clearly investigate how factors such as national and sector culture interfere and affect leaders' choice of leadership style, as there is limited empirical research on linking the concepts of national or sector culture and leaders' freedom of leadership or management style. However, some scholars (e.g., Bolden and Kirk, 2009, Jackson, 2004 and Leonard, 1987) use culture to justify the uniqueness of African leadership styles, while other scholars describe African culture as an impediment to effective leadership practices in Africa.

According to Tojari, Heris and Zarei (2011), most employees from developing countries have a preference for leaders and managers who are able to inspire, guide and support them – this can be deduced to mean paternalistic and transformational leaders. However, Merhrabani and Mohammed (2011) clarified that the preferred leadership style could depend on the sector of the organisation. For example, organisations within the public sector from developing countries prefer the adoption of transactional leadership models, where decisions are more centralised, and command-oriented leadership styles are more prevalent and dominant. On the contrary, organisations within the private sector from developing countries have a preference for transformational leadership, where the democratic and paternalistic leadership styles are more dominant (Merhrabani and Mohamed, 2011).

Similarly, in linking the different leadership styles to different industries and organisations, Dastmalchian, Javidan and Alam (2001) report that transactional leadership style appears to be more effective and successful in industrial organisations such as factories and construction organisations because of the strict measures that are required. Conversely, transformational leadership styles are more effective and appropriate in service-oriented organisations as they seem to enhance job satisfaction, which motivates employees to put extra effort into achieving the service objectives (Dastmalchian, Javidan & Alam, 2001). Organisational leadership research (Dastmalchian, Javidan & Alam, 2001, Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003) conducted in Iran and other developing countries examined male and female managers' choices of leadership style and realised that male leaders had a preference for transformational leadership approaches, whilst female leaders had a preference for transactional leadership styles. On the contrary, Nazarian and Atkinson (2013) argue that leaders' leadership preferences or styles are influenced more by the corporate and national culture of their respective countries and companies, and are not entirely their choice of preferred leadership style. Essentially, leaders may not have the freedom to adopt a preferred pattern or style of leading due to the bureaucracy and centralisation of power in developing countries

3.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter reviewed and discussed the overview and geographical context of the sample location (Nigeria) where data was collected. The chapter further discussed some existing OCM practices in Nigeria, with reports of employees showing a lukewarm attitude towards change programmes because of their perceived negative impacts on employees, according to Nosakhare (2000). Reviews of organisational change resistive behaviours in

Nigeria and how such resistive behaviours were addressed and managed in the country were also discussed. It was further discussed that certain external factors, such as religion, culture, social and value systems, may be affecting the successful implementation of change programmes in African/Nigerian organisations, and thus influencing leadership behaviour and preferences (Idiagbon-Oke & Oke, 2011 and Nazarian & Atkinson, 2013). The chapter also analysed and discussed gender and African leadership constructs in developing countries such as South Africa and Nigeria.

The next chapter discusses the present study's research philosophy, approach, method, design and the tools employed to analyse the obtained data from the five organisational cases.

4 CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter reviewed the extant literature on OCM processes in Nigeria. This one builds and explores the research methodological concepts that directed and formed this research. The chapter discusses the procedural processes with which this research was conducted, with the aim of achieving the purpose, aim and objectives of this study.

Thus, this chapter is presented in four sections. **Section 1** discusses the underlying philosophical assumptions, perspectives, paradigms and positions used in the OCM studies that shaped the philosophical stances or positions of this research. **Section 2** presents the methodological choices (qualitative methods, multi-case design, with an intensive approach also known as the inductive approach) of this study. In addition, the grounds or appropriateness of the chosen sample location, methods, design and approach are explained in this section. **Section 3** presents the methods and processes of data collection, with details of the selection of the sample cases, the pilot study, and feedback from the preliminary study, which was conducted prior to the interviews. It also discusses ethical issues and the trustworthiness and validity of this research. The final section, **section 4**, explains the data analysis processes of this study.

4.2 DEFINITION OF METHODOLOGICAL KEY TERMS

Presented in a tabular form are the definitions of commonly used terminologies in this chapter.

Table 7: Tabular Presentation of Key Definition of Terms (Researcher 2016)

Terminology	Definition
Research	Something undertaken by people in order to find out things in a systematic way, to increase or expand their knowledge (Saunders et al., 2003).
Research Method(s)	A research method is a systematic and orderly approach adopted for the collection and analysis of data (Jankowicz, 2005). Crotty (1998) further defines it as procedures or techniques used to gather and analyse data.
Research Methodology	This is the discussion on how a piece of research should be undertaken (Grix, 2002), while Crotty (1998) defined it as a strategy, process, plan of action or design behind the choice and the use of a particular method to attain the desired outcomes.
Research Design/Strategy	Research design or strategy helps to shape a researcher's choice and use of chosen methods and links them to the desired outcomes (Crotty, 1998). It is an overall approach adopted by researchers to answer research questions (Saunders et al., 2003).
Philosophical Paradigm	The research philosophical paradigms differentiate the relationship between data and theory. It is a set of frameworks, consisting of theories, methods and ways of defining data (Easter-Smith et al., 1991 and Collis and Hussey, 2003).

Research Philosophy	The research philosophy contains crucial assumptions about the way researchers view the world. It relates to the nature of knowledge and the development of that knowledge (Saunders et al., 2007).
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4.3 SECTION 1: PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNINGS AND POSITION FOR THE STUDY

Jankowicz (2005) asserts that it is pertinent not to mix the various philosophical paradigms and assumptions, as they almost mean the same things. For instance, epistemological and ontological branches are very similar in meaning, and if care is not taken, could be mistaken for each other. This section therefore explores the various philosophical stances and paradigms, as they served as the foundation of this research.

To draw attention to research philosophies, this section presents social science paradigms and philosophies that can be used in management and social science research. The section is sub-divided into three categories – the relevance of understanding philosophical theories or positions; the historical context of the three main philosophical branches; and the philosophical positions used in change management studies. The section ends with a presentation of the appropriateness of the phenomenologist and critical realism positions that were chosen for this study.

Before moving on to discuss and explore the substantive nature of research philosophies through research paradigms, it is pertinent to understand what philosophy and paradigms entail, or the way in which they have been used in this chapter. Words with multiple meanings are used frequently in social sciences, meaning different things to different people. Within this context, the study defines *philosophy* as an individual's or

researcher's belief and thinking about knowledge and how it is created and developed (Saunders et al., 2003), whilst a *paradigm* refers to a set of frameworks consisting of theories, methods and ways of defining data (Easter-Smith et al., 1991 and Collis and Hussey, 2003). Oates (2006) further defines *paradigm* as a set of shared assumptions or ways of thinking about a certain aspect of the world. Therefore, a philosophical paradigm can be summed up as the epistemology (the distinction between justified belief and opinion), that guides a research (Myers, 2009).

4.3.1 Implications of Understanding Research Philosophical Stance/Paradigm

One could ask the practical reason for understanding a philosophical position in any given research. Saunders et al. (2007:116) suggest that it is of practical benefit for researchers to understand these often ignored philosophical assumptions and perspectives. The research philosophy adopted by a researcher contains assumptions about the way he or she views the world, a perspective that underpins one's research strategies and methods (Saunders et al., 2009). In addition, Easter-Smith et al. (2008) suggest that a failure to think through a philosophical stance may have an effect on the quality of the research carried out. In addition, a knowledge or awareness of a philosophical stance will help researchers with the choice of an appropriate design, method and approach, and with achieving satisfactory outcomes (Easter-Smith et al., 2008).

Johnson and Clark (2006) further suggest that management and business researchers need to be aware of the philosophical commitments and assumptions they make in their research. This is because such assumptions have a significant impact on what they do and also help in explicitly understanding what it is they are investigating. They further argue that the importance is not placed on the philosophical information, but on how well researchers are able to reflect upon their philosophical choices and defend them relative

to the availability of other alternatives. However, the philosophical assumption or position that one adopts could arguably be influenced by a researcher's practical considerations. For instance, a researcher who is concerned with gathering facts, such as the skills and competencies required to successfully implement and manage an organisational change process, is likely to have a different perspective on how research should be conducted compared to a researcher whose concern is with the feelings and attitudes of affected employees in the same change process. Essentially, not only will their strategies and methods differ considerably, but also their views on what is important and useful (Saunders et al., 2009).

4.3.2 Historical Underpinnings of Three Philosophical Branches

In order for a researcher to justify the adoption of a particular philosophical position, he or she will need to pay attention to a range of issues that underlie the researcher's position on notions of how theories are generated and tested. Therefore, this section examines the three philosophical branches outlined by Saunders et al. (2009), as shown in Table 8 below.

Table 8: Three Branches of Philosophy (Saunders et al., 2009)

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Examined and analysed below are three major branches of research philosophy as presented in Table 8. Each of the outlined branches contains crucial differences which influenced and directed the most suitable approach for this study (Saunders et al., 2009). The reviewed branches are highly relevant (Blaikie, 1993), however they could result in a strong tension amongst academics and theorists (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003 and Kvale, 1996). The reason for exploring these branches was to enhance an understanding of the various philosophical stances that formed the philosophical position of this study, this being of the ontological branch. It enhanced the present study's views and observations of men and women's change management strategies, their leadership approaches to organisational change scenarios and their potential impact on OCM outcomes.

4.3.2.1 Ontology

Ontology is described as what is known or what constitutes social reality (Crotty, 2003). Grix (2002) further postulates it as the starting point of research of all kinds, after which epistemology and axiology logically follow. Ontology describes a researcher's views on the nature of reality (Flowers, 2009 and Saunders et al., 2009). Blaike (1993) posits its root definition as the science or study of beings. Ontology is synonymously used as

metaphysics, one of the oldest branches of philosophy (Holden and Lynch, 2004). Hach and Cunliffe (2006) linked the realities of ontological assumptions to how individuals or groups of people determine these realities. They explored whether such realities existed only through experience of it (subjectivism), or whether it independently existed only in the sight of those who lived it (objectivism). Thus, two facets of ontology, objectivism and subjectivism, are arguably likely to be accepted by many researchers when generating valid knowledge.

Consequently, every researcher and theorist has a relative number of deeply entrenched ontological assumptions, which affect their views on what is real and whether existence is attributed to one set of things over another (Flower, 2009). Flower argues that researchers may be unsighted to certain aspects of the inquiry or phenomena, if these fundamental assumptions are not identified and properly dealt with.

4.3.2.2 Epistemology

The word epistemology was derived from the Greek '*episteme*' (meaning knowledge) and '*Logos*' (meaning reason), and is concerned with the development of new theories and models that may be better than the extant competing models and theories (Grix, 2001). The epistemological branch constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study and advocates the significance of researchers understanding the differences between humans in their role as social actors (Saunders et al., 2009). Hence, the branch is emphatically centred on questions of whether or not the social world should be studied according to the ethos, principles and procedures of the natural sciences (Bryan and Bell, 2011). Grix (2001) further describes epistemology as one of the core branches of philosophy that is mostly concerned with the theory of knowledge, especially regarding

its methods (possible means of acquiring knowledge of social entities and the validation of acquired knowledge).

4.3.2.3 Axiology

Axiology is the process of social inquiry which advocates that a researcher's values play a paramount role in determining whether credible results are to be obtained (Saunders et al., 2009). As indicated in Table 8, axiology is the branch of philosophy concerned with the study of the judgement of values. With it being centred on the study of values, Heron (1996) postulates values as the guiding reason for all human actions. Researchers display skills of axiology in their ability to express their values as a basis for conformed judgements about the research they are conducting, with details of how they go about doing it (Hebron, 1996).

Axiology is of paramount importance to every research, as the choice of methods reflects the researcher's values (Saunders et al., 2009). For instance, in the course of this study's preparation to collect data, greater emphasis was placed on collecting data through face-to-face to interviews, which valued highly the personal interaction with the research participants, over anonymous responses articulated through survey data. Axiology is, however, evidently applicable to the nature of the research, and researchers must be clear about his or her own values. Saunders et al. (2009) suggest that the ability of a researcher to be clear about his or her own values will help with making informed decisions about what is ethically appropriate.

The next section reviews and discusses the philosophical positions or perspectives that have been adopted in change management studies.

4.3.3 Philosophical Positions/Paradigms in Change Management

Several research approaches are possible and feasible in social sciences research, such as OCM, gender and leadership studies. However, there are some approaches that can be delimiting (Saunders et al., 2007). Therefore, great care was taken not to adopt an intermediate philosophical approach or stance that would lead to a mismatch between the research philosophy, design, approach, method and the research problem (Holden and Lynch, 2004). Thus, this section discusses the various philosophical positions under which some OCM studies have been investigated.

A wide range of philosophical paradigms are available to be used in gender and organisational studies. Burrell and Morgan (1979), as cited in Saunders et al. (2007:112), proposed four social science paradigms, which they suggest can be used in OCM research, with specific reference to radical change. Speculatively, the model was developed to help generate fresh insights into real-life change issues and the challenges that may be encountered. The proposed paradigms are depicted in Figure 4 – functionalist, interpretive, radical humanist and radical structuralist.

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Figure 4. Four Paradigm Analyses of Social Theory (Burrell and Morgan, 1979)

Burrell and Morgan (1979) defined the four paradigms as ‘basic meta-theoretical assumptions’ that underwrite the frame of reference, mode of theorising and modus operandi of change management processes (Burrell and Morgan, 1979:23). They however inferred that the definition does not imply complete unity of thought, but gives room for debate between theorists who employ different approaches or strategies.

The model infers that the proposed paradigms correspond to four conceptual dimensions or perspectives, indicated as radical change, regulation, subjectivist and objectivist. The first dimension (radical change) adopts a judgemental and critical perspective on organisational life, by analysing how an organisation ought to conduct its affairs. It also suggests ways in which the stated affairs may be easily conducted without chaos, in order to successfully implement fundamental organisational changes. The second dimension (regulatory perspective) is less judgemental and critical than the former. It seeks to explain the way in which organisational affairs are being regulated and proffers suggestions on how they may be improved within given frameworks. Speculatively, radical change seeks to approach organisational problems or challenges by overturning the existing states of affairs, while the regulatory dimension sticks to working within the existing state of affairs (Saunders et al., 2007).

Burrell and Morgan (1979) note that the aims of the four paradigms are to:

- ❖ Offer useful methods of understanding the ways in which other researchers approach and manage their projects
- ❖ Help clarify researchers’ assumptions about their view of the nature of science and society

- ❖ Help researchers plot their own route, and help them understand the direction of their project.

4.3.3.1 Interpretivism Position

In times past, interpretivism positions have given primacy to qualitative methods in research (Jankowicz, 2005). The interpretivism philosophical stance, also known as social constructionism, is classified as a social research philosophy that views the world as a constructed social entity (Orange, 2010). The interpretive perspective advocates that the social sciences are fundamentally different from the natural sciences (Bryan and Bell, 2007). According to Orange (2010:4), the primary aim of the interpretive position is to elucidate why ‘people have different experiences through social interaction’. Thomas and Linstead (2002), as cited in Orange (2010:4), contend that the adoption of a social constructionist or interpretivist framework leads to new ways of focusing on identity and an understanding of sense making in new and changing work roles.

Interpretivism refers to the way in which human beings attempt to make sense of their surroundings or environment. Theorists and researchers of this paradigm tend to adopt the consonant approach within the principles of sociological regulation (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). However, it is subjective and regulatory in nature, as indicated in the bottom left corner of the social analysis paradigm quadrant in Figure 4. Its subjectivist stance to the analysis of the social world makes it implicit rather than explicit (Burrell and Morgan, 1979:28). The interpretivist philosophical stance was criticised for being ‘overly subjective and politicised’ (Guest and MacQueen, 2012:15), a standpoint that gave a boost to the positivist stance, as it attempts to establish a closer picture of reality as objectively as possible, working within the limitations of the imposed study parameters (Guest and MacQueen, 2012). Burrell and Morgan (1979:28) deduced the interpretive

paradigm stance to be of a nominalist, anti-positivist, voluntarist and ideographic nature, because it views the social world as an emergent social process holistically created by concerned individuals.

Interpretivist positions help researchers to gain insights into the way that people develop an awareness of different situations, such as this study creating an awareness of the differences that may exist in men and women's approaches to organisational change and their potential impact on OCM outcomes. Essentially, interpretivism postulates that researchers may be part of the research reality and may not be separated from what is being researched (Fairhurst and Grant, 2010 and Grix, 2010).

4.3.3.2 Positivism Position

Positivism is part of an epistemological philosophical branch of the natural sciences. In times past, a positivist position gave primacy to the quantitative methods of research (Jankowicz, 2005). In contrast and from a procedural standpoint, Bernard and Ryan (1998) define the positivist stance as a qualitative data analysis technique that involves the reduction of texts to codes that represent themes or concepts and an application of quantitative methods to find the patterns and identified codes. As a result, a positivist stance is based on fundamental ideas and argues that interpretations are often derived directly from observed data, where data collection and analysis are systematic and transparent (Guest and MacQueen, 2012). Positivist philosophers (e.g., Auguste Comte) encourage proponents of the positivist stance to make greater use of 'measurement and quantification' (Guest and MacQueen, 2002:15).

The basis of the positivist position may not have significant relevance to the present study because the positivist stance is often based on explication, the generation of a hypothesis

and theory testing, while arguing that elements of the social world can only be objectively defined and observed with the usage of scientific methods (Easter-Smith et al., 2008). The above basis of the positivist stance is far from the main principles of this research because it is not about hypothesis generation and theory testing. Thus, it can be argued that substantial parts of positivism give primacy to reality being objectively observed through a huge scale survey sample of what is being investigated. Some research on change management in organisations has been conducted based on the positivism position with respect to the field's focus on quantitative approaches, such as those conducted by Paton and McCalman (2008), Paton and Dempster (2002), Linstead et al., (2005), Tyler (2005) and Ely and Meyerson (2000), which partly led to the emergence of this current study.

With regards to the suitability of a positivist position for this study, the position's pure form is ill-suited for studying the complexity of an organisational change process, and the content, behavioural relationships and in-depth individual experiences that need to be investigated. Its inappropriateness is also due to the fact that none of this study's constructs – gender, leadership and OCM – can be observed or investigated in an objective manner. However, it is arguable that some elements of gender, leadership and change management processes can be sufficiently investigated, predefined, measured and accessed by the researcher in an objective manner. The positivist position still overlooks the possibility that not all organisational processes and contexts may be directly observed through the principles of a positivist stance (Partington, 1997).

4.3.3.3 Subjectivism Position – The Phenomenologist

This aspect of an ontological position infers that “social phenomena are created from the perceptions and consequent actions of those social actors concerned with their existence”

(Saunders et al., 2009:10). Bryan and Bell (2007) also share a similar view, postulating that this ontological position is a social phenomenon, the meaning of which is being accomplished by social actors. The stated position overtly places an emphasis on the way that people make sense of the surrounding world, particularly through shared experiences (Easter-Smith, 2008). Researchers within the subjective ontological stance are sometimes referred to as ‘phenomenologists’.

Consequently, a subjectivism stance is mostly associated with constructionism or social constructionism, proposing that it is crucial to investigate the subjective meanings of the motivating actions of social actors. This is to enable researchers to understand the observed actions. Social constructionism views reality as being socially constructed (Saunders et al., 2009). A subjectivist stance is a ‘continual process’ (Saunders et al., 2009:11) that stresses the need to study in-depth details of situations in order to understand the basic reality of what is being investigated (Remenyi et al., 1998). Also, a subjectivist position stresses the significance of letting one’s subject unfold its nature and characteristics in the investigation phase (Burrell and Morgan, 1979).

In a proper analysis of the two main ontological positions, Holden and Lynch (2004) infer subjectivism as a more appropriate approach in social science study or research, as a result of the complex nature of social world research (e.g., human beings). Subjectivism’s proponents (e.g., Webb and Dawson, 1991 and Wilk, 2001), further claim that researchers employing a phenomenologist ontology, accompanied by a critical realism approach, achieve more illuminating success. Nevertheless, this is not to infer that subjectivism or phenomenology does not have its own flaws and critics, as there is therefore no “absolute basis for scientific knowledge” (Hughes and Sharrock, 1997:162-63) and “Theories are

incommensurable; hence, one theory cannot be held as more valid than another” (Holden and Lynch, 2004:11). Considering the different views with regard to what constitutes reality, further questions that follow are to ascertain how such a reality is measured and what constitutes knowledge of that reality.

Phenomenological research seems to overlap with other significant qualitative researches such as ethnography, hermeneutics and symbolic interactionism. Generally, phenomenological research essentially aims to describe rather than to explain, and very importantly to start from a perspective free from hypotheses and pre-conceived ideologies (Husserl 1970). However, some humanist and feminist researchers (e.g., Plummer 1983, Stanley & Wise 1993) refute the possibility of starting a research without personal preconceptions or bias, and emphasise the significance of making explicit and transparent how interpretations and meanings have been placed on to the obtained findings. It is worth noting that the present study’s research questions and themes were drawn from the literature. Hence, leading to the present research not following a strict phenomenological approach but adopted Easter-Smith’s (2008) phenomenological framework of making an enquiry into the shared experiences of a preconceived phenomenon or ideology.

4.3.3.4 Critical Realism

Critical realism infers that there is a real world with which we interact, and to which our concepts and theories refer (Maxwell & Mittapalli, 2010). Philips (1987:205) defined philosophic realism as the view that entities exist independent of people’s perceptions and of the way the world views things. In addition, most critical realists accept the reality of mental states and attributes, and the significance of these for causal explanations in the social sciences; they therefore make important contributions to a qualitative research (Maxwell & Mittapalli, 2010).

More specifically, Lakoff and Johnson (1999) highlight the following characteristics associated with critical realism:

- (a) An absolute commitment to the existence of the real world
- (b) The acknowledgement that existing reality places constraints on certain concepts. For example, culture exists in any given organisation, sector or country, which could constrain and affect the leadership behaviour and styles of leaders
- (c) A conception of truth that goes beyond mere internal coherence
- (d) A commitment to the existence of stable knowledge of the world

Critical realism is based on the perception that real structures exist independently of human consciousness and that knowledge is socially created. However, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) argue that knowledge of reality is a result of social conditioning. Critical realism is an ultimate search for generating mechanisms (Blaike 2000). From an OCM perspective, Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) describe realist research as enquiring into the mechanisms and structures that underlie institutional forms and practices, how these emerge over time, how they might empower and constrain social actors and how such forms may be critiqued and changed. Critical realism is cognisant of social and natural sciences being different, by arguing that social reality is pre-interpreted and that natural science is empirical-based.

Critical realists assume that there is an existing reality; however, there is no way that such assumptions can ever be proved or disproved (Maxwell & Mittern, 2010). According to Easton (2009), critical realism is particularly well-suited as a companion to case research, as with this research. This is because it is said to justify the study of any organisational situation, regardless of the numbers of the involved entities. However, it

requires thoughtful and in-depth research with the main objective being to understand and explore why things are the way they have been portrayed to be (Carter and New, 2004).

4.3.4 Philosophical Positions and Their Appropriateness for This Study

This study adopted a multilevel ontological branch, known as critical realism, and phenomenological research paradigms. The multilevel ontological adoption supports the assumption of process and contents being real, where some contents and processes are revealed through critical observation and some through subjective accounts of organisational actors. The latter relates to this study, where subjective accounts and experiences of organisational change programmes were gathered from male and female leaders and recipients of the introduced changes.

In recent times, change management and gender studies have predominantly been conducted through quantitative research approaches, such as questionnaires (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006). However, Partington (1998) advocates the adoption of a phenomenological or critical realism approach for future OCM studies in order to gain a more in-depth understanding of the underlying mechanisms and processes required for successful management of organisational change programmes. This was a strong rationale for the adoption of the critical realism philosophical approach to critically understand the mechanism and processes used in management of change programmes in the organisational cases studied. Whilst, the main rationale for the adoption of the phenomenological perspective was to enquire into the participants' perception of men and women's differences in approach to organisational change scenarios and their potential impact on OCM outcome. The adopted paradigms used the accounts of male and female leaders and recipients or followers from five organisations (one federal medical health centre, two banking organisations and two government

parastatal/ministries), to understand the underlying mechanisms that can be used to achieve success in organisational change processes.

According to Bhasker (1989 cited in Robson, 2011:490), critical realism is concerned with the understanding and evaluation of people's perspectives rather than judging them. Whilst phenomenology mostly deals with understanding a phenomenon through an enquiry into the subjective accounts and experiences of the individuals studied (Husserl, 1977 and Stewart & Mickinas, 1990 cited in Robson, 2011). In this research, the approaches employed were chosen with the aim of helping the researcher to understand and investigate whether there are differences in the way that men and women manage change in organisations and how this possibly affects OCM outcomes. The main essence is to find out what their experiences were like, and how one can understand and describe their experiences. The main basis of the adopted philosophical positions is the assumption that reality exists independently of people's awareness. However, it could be better understood by enquiring into the subjective accounts, experiences and perceptions of organisational individual actors.

The feminist approaches would have been considered since they also focus on gender imbalances, with the belief that women are historically disadvantaged and do not enjoy the same privileges and power as men, leaving women living in oppressive societies (Martusewicz and Reynolds, 1994:13). However, Robson (2011) argues that the purpose of most feminist enquiry is to facilitate women's emancipation and to gain an adequate understanding of women's views of the world, which raises concerns and issues that are mostly beneficial to women, with very few gender-balanced views that accommodate and benefit both men and women. Pragmatically speaking, the present study has its interest

in gender-balanced OCM practices in organisations and not in favour of a particular sex. Consequently, the study considered feminist approaches and enquiry ill-suited for undertaking real-world empirical enquiry on the relationship between gender and OCM. The employed philosophical positions are interlinked in their connectedness with real-world enquiries into understanding the researched phenomena or concepts, and the mechanisms and systems involved in managing organisational change programmes for the desired outcome.

The present study's adoption of critical realism takes seriously the existence of things, events, structures, people, shared meanings and perceptions in the studied phenomena. Kvale (1995:21) infers that critical realism advocates the possibility of specific local, personal, and community forms of truth gathered from the daily lives and local narratives of the subjective accounts of organisational actors, as is the case with this study. For instance, Syed and Murray (2008) and Paton and Dempster (2002) argue that there are differences in men's and women's leadership patterns and behaviours, and that these may affect organisational processes. In support of the adopted critical and phenomenological positions, it was never the intention of the present study to impose those existing theories on to the participants and organisations, but rather to enquire from the respondents their subjective accounts or experiences of the reality of such differences, and how they may impact on OCM processes and desired outcomes.

Lester (1999) postulates that the phenomenological paradigm generally brings to the fore people's experiences and perceptions of existing situations or phenomena. Similarly, the main philosophical principles of this study bring to the fore the participants' views, knowledge, experiences and perceptions of men's and women's approaches to change

scenarios and the potential impact that this may have on OCM outcomes. Phenomenology is concerned with the study of individuals' or participants' experiences, often described by Lester (1999) as those individuals' or actors' taken-for-granted assumptions and perceptions. Ontologically speaking, phenomenological approaches are based on a paradigm of the research participants' personal knowledge and subjectivity, which strongly emphasises the significance of their personal perspective and interpretation. Therefore, the phenomenological paradigm laid the foundation and made it possible to understand the subjective experience of male and female leaders and recipients of organisational change processes, to gain insights into their motivations and actions, and also to maximise the taken-for-granted assumptions and conventional wisdom of those who have had direct experience of the phenomena.

4.3.4.1 Application of Critical Realism and Phenomenological Positions to the Study's Research Methods, Approaches, Designs and Data Analysis

The present study's data was qualitatively collected and its approach is of an inductive nature. The main essence was to enquire into the participants' perception of men's and women's approaches to organisational change scenarios and their potential impact on OCM outcomes. The aforementioned design and method was mainly influenced by the adopted critical realism and phenomenological positions. Lester (1999) describes the phenomenology position as a paradigm that involves gathering information or data about people's perceptions of a particular organisational situation. The required data, Lester (1999) suggests, can be inductively and qualitatively collected and presented to the relevant audience. The study conducted 40 semi-structured interviews with male and female leaders and recipients of change processes across five organisations. This was particularly important because it was essential for the present study to understand

organisational change managers' and recipients' perceptions of how male and female leaders differed in their approaches and management of organisational change programmes and the impact that this had on OCM outcomes.

The significance of critical realism and the phenomenology positions of the present study stem from the view that there are different perspectives on organisational problems and these perspectives may be valid in the present society that we live in. These perspectives, as held by the people who were studied, are part of the world and the existing reality that the present study is in anticipation to understand. The understanding of these subjective perspectives or accounts of change processes can be more or less correct. The adoption of the critical realism and phenomenological philosophical paradigms recognises the reality and importance of the meaning and interpretive nature of one's understandings of these perspectives and the subjective accounts of the participants' experiences of the change processes and how they were managed. Consequently, Hammersley (1992) and Maxwell (1992) strongly advocate a combination of ontological critical realism and phenomenology for a qualitative research because they provide new and useful ways of approaching organisational problems, providing more insights into social phenomena. According to Maxwell & Mittapalli (2010), an integration of the critical realist perspective and a process-oriented approach such as the phenomenological paradigm may help to conduct a proper enquiry into people's perceptions and interpretations of the realities that exist in organisations.

According to Maxwell & Mittapalli (2010), critical realism and phenomenological positions can be applied to a single case or to deliberately selected sample organisations and participants, as is the case with this study. Organisations were selected based on the

fact that they had undergone and implemented change programmes. The participants were selected from leaders who had led change programmes and followers who had been the recipients of implemented changes in the organisations. The present study is a multiple case and participant research study, which enhanced the strength of the research's credibility due to the patterns and trends that resurfaced from more than one organisation and participant. For example, it was revealed from more than one of the sample organisations that most of the women were more transactional in their leadership patterns and men were more transformational leaders, contrary to the extant literature. This was deduced to have been influenced by societal norms and values, as women felt that they needed to be hard in order to prove their worth of effective leadership, which promotes the feminist sameness paradigm.

According to Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) and Sobh and Perry (2005), the problem associated with critical realism and phenomenological research is that they generate large interview notes, tape recordings, jottings and other records that require analysis. Therefore, analysing the gathered data can sometimes be messy because the collected data may not neatly fit into the anticipated categories. The first phase of analysing the individual accounts of the researched phenomena entailed the researcher reading through the data. This was done to gain an initial understanding of what was being said, and to be able to place the comments in to their respective themes and categories, as these had already been identified from the reviewed literature and the study's central research objectives and questions. Notwithstanding, some important trends and patterns emerged from the data outside the prior themes, and these were grouped and clustered into categories and sub-categories.

The present study, being of a critical realism and phenomenology foundation, realises and acknowledges that people have an objective knowledge of the world through personal experiences and encounters of existing organisational issues. Therefore, it sought to understand how these issues were perceived by the actors and how they were being interpreted by those who had had direct experience of them. For example, the extant literature postulates that the failure to consider the impact of gender leadership differences on OCM practices could be a contributing factor to the reported limited success in OCM (Creasey, 2012, Daniels, 2011, Paton & Dempster, 2002, Sharma, 2006 and Maurer, 2009). Therefore, the present study sought to know the perceptions of leaders and recipients of organisational change programmes regarding the impact that this may have on OCM outcomes, this being the philosophical foundation of this study.

The phenomenological foundation of this research also bore in mind that each of the participant's accounts and experiences were very important. The transcribed texts from the interviews were aggregated and organised into a template analysis of each individual's subjective accounts, experiences and perceptions of men's and women's approaches to change scenarios and their impact on OCM outcomes. This does not infer that the experiences and perceptions shared by the participants were by any means facts or exact behaviours in relation to the researched areas. However, it does give an insight into how these organisational actors view and perceive the present-day organisational issues.

The adopted qualitative research method for this study is often linked to the subjective nature of social reality because it provides critical insights into the researched area. This enables researchers to explore insiders' views, which helps researchers to view and perceive things as their participants and informants do (Taylor et al., 2016). This,

anthropologists and linguists refer to the “emic perspective” (Harris, 1976). Taylor et al. (2016) described the emic perspective as researchers’ attempts to examine the feelings, experiences and perceptions of the participants of a particular study, rather than imposing the researchers’ framework, which may even distort participants’ ideas and narratives. According to Taylor et al. (2005), researchers seek to understand how participants make sense of their individual behaviours and the rules that govern their respective actions, which could be achieved by listening to their accounts and experiences.

The principles of almost all research paradigms, such as the adopted paradigms for the present study, have certain implications for the research design, method of data collection and the analysis and presentation of the data. Sobh and Perry (2005) suggest that critical realism researchers should go into the field with prior themes to enable the facilitation and enrichment of data. The application of the adopted critical realism and phenomenological philosophical paradigms, which are in line with Sobh and Perry’s (2005) stance of critical realism research, started with the researcher of the present study going into the field with prior themes. The study’s creation of prior themes and the acknowledgement of existing knowledge, realities and theories was founded in the principles of the adopted research philosophies (critical realist and phenomenology paradigms), which suggest that consideration should be given to theorised realities and knowledge before data is collected (Perry et al., 1999:18). This is also consistent with the thoughts of Miles and Huberman (1994:17), who suggest that researchers should develop a preliminary conceptual framework from the literature and from people’s experiences in relation to the researched area’s underlying structures and mechanisms before going into the field to collect data.

Consequently, having the prior knowledge helped the researcher with the selection of the interviewees and organisations that participated in this research. Also, this helped with the design and development of more open and probing questions in the interview brief. The stated process is in contrast to the likes of grounded theory research, where researchers gradually construct theories by interacting with their own accumulative data, without necessarily having inputs from other people's theories in the literature (Sobh and Perry 2005). For instance, a researcher investigating the stress pattern of men and women may not be allowed to read other research about stress patterns of men and women until the data for their research has been collected and analysed (Carson et al., 2001).

According to Patton (1999), there should some within-case and cross-case analysis of each case in critical realism and phenomenological research as part of the data analysis and reporting techniques – this will help with understanding some underlying structures and mechanisms of the area under study. Also, Carson and Coviello (1996) argue that critical realism research emphasises relationships, connections, and creativity, and therefore, computer software may lead to a decrease in sensitivity and proper understanding of the data, and the researcher being completely immersed with the collected data. This means computer programmes such as NVIVO, SPSS and NUD*IST may be more suitable for research that is “not aware of anything other than the text properties of the data and cannot interpret, make deductions or make generalisations from the data” (Dembrowski and Hammer-Lloyd, 1995: 53), which is completely different from critical realism and phenomenological research.

Consequently, no complicated software was used in the analysis of the data other than 2012 excel spreadsheet. With regards to data analysis, Sobhe and Perry (2005)

highlighted some data analysis techniques that informed the steps that were taken to analyse the obtained critical realist data. Sobhe and Perry suggest that codes be generated as a first step, in order to reduce the data to a manageable form. Data should be presented in quotations in the text, referring to which respondent is being quoted, in order to provide a more in-depth understanding than that which critical realism researchers seek. This study's analysis began with generating codes from the obtained data in line with Sobhe and Perry's (2005) recommended critical realist data analysis steps. Secondly, they recommended identifying themes, trends and patterns that may have emerged from the data, followed by interpreting the results from the data, and any other necessary analytical processes.

According to Lester (1999), looking across themes between participants is likely to be easily done on a physical document in a small-scale project with a small sample population. In the case of a larger number of participants, Lester (1999) suggests entering the collected data into a database according to the analysis headings, and perhaps using a mail merge facility to extract and compare the entries. This may be useful for enabling data under different headings to be juxtaposed and compared, which is particularly useful for identifying the relationships between individual accounts or perceptions, or different themes, factors and elements. Similarly, the present study conducted 40 semi-structured interviews that lasted between 40 and 75 minutes. This generated what can be considered to be a large piece of data. Therefore, the subsequent data analysis (after the first reading and data coding) involved entering individual data into an Microsoft Excel spreadsheet under the identified themes and categories. This enabled the researcher to juxtapose and compare individual perceptions and findings obtained from the personal accounts given by the participants. This holistically facilitated the cross-case analysis, where aggregate

findings from the five organisations and the involved sectors were juxtaposed and compared.

Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that the employed philosophical approaches advocate theory development as well as testing existing theories (Robson, 2011), which is consistent with the adopted inductive research approach. According to Sobhe and Perry (2005) and Maxwell & Mittapalli (2010), cases or case study research through interviews are firmly entrenched in critical realist and phenomenological research. Hence, the employed research design is also consistent with the critical realist and phenomenological views.

4.3.4.2 Perception versus Reality

Reality is a very fluid concept and what people see as real is only defined by the belief structure and system of the people involved (Sobhe and Perry, 2005). Essentially, reality is only people's perception of it and not actually what happens; just because people see something a particular way does not make it a reality or a fact. What people term reality is nothing but a unique concept to different people –people's perceptions of a particular phenomenon or concept differ significantly. For example, some people believe that change programmes in organisations are sometimes necessary in order to make organisations and existing systems, processes and structures more effective. On the contrary, others believe that changes are not good because they bring about conflicts in organisations (Watson and Gallagher, 2005). Particularly with the current study, some of the participants stated that they had seen differences in male and female organisational change leadership preferences, and that these should therefore be considered in the design of OCM strategies. In contrast, other participants were of the view that there may be slight gender leadership differences, but that these should not be considered in the design of

OCM strategies because they may not be a critical success factor. This does not imply that participant A's comment is a reality and a fact, or that it is even superior to participant B's opinion. These participants may have said things out of personal emotions or mentioned things that they felt the researcher needed to hear. It could also be deduced that the participants were restricted to saying what their management had approved for them to share in the interviews.

Researchers gain access to organisational social reality by taking into account informants' and participants' intentions, motives and perceptions. On this ground, it is worth emphasising that the information provided by the participants and informants consists of their accounts and explanations of the events and actions that took place in the organisations, and this does not by any means infer that the provided information is facts or reality. However, such accounts and explanations may be considered valid (but not necessarily facts) because the researcher went in search of the participants' definition of reality with regards to the researched phenomena or concepts (Taylor et al., 2016:13). According to Dey (1993), researchers cannot completely rely on participants' accounts but could take their words and actions as reflections of underlying meanings of the reality that is being sought after. Also, this may imply that researchers can still theorise or develop frameworks from the participants' observed behaviours, accounts, actions and words. Harris (1976) referred to it as the "Etic view", also known as the outsider or researcher's view. This consequently led to the study's model for managing organisational change programmes from a more gender-inclusive perspective.

The next section presents the methodological choices of this study and further explains the appropriateness of their adoption.

4.4 SECTION 2 – METHODOLOGICAL CHOICES OF THE STUDY

Extant literature argues that men and women differ in their leadership styles, thus they tend to employ distinct styles to lead and manage organisational change processes (Adichie, 2013 and Paton and Dempster, 2002). The influential role that both sexes play in the researched concepts (gender and OCM) construe that social interaction does exist in organisations. This section builds on the methodological choices and assumptions that gave birth to the approach, design and method that have been adopted for this study and are shown in Figure 5. It is illustrated in this section and Figure 5 that an intensive or inductive approach, and a qualitative method through semi-structured interview and multiple-case design, were preferred and adopted, as they offered greater advantages over other strategies, approaches and research methods. Other than just stating the chosen methodological choices for this study, this section also presents the reasons for their suitability and appropriateness.

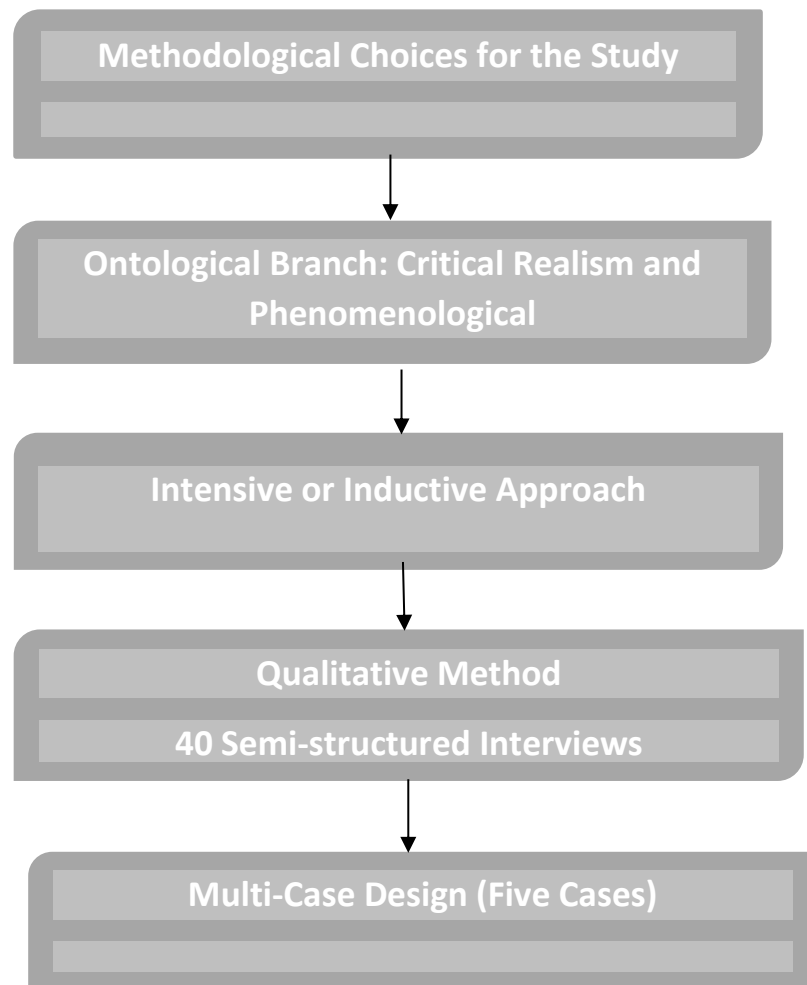


Figure 5. The Study's Methodological Choices (researcher 2016)

4.4.1 Appropriateness of Intensive Approach for Change Management and Gender Studies

Sayer (2000) outlines two main research approaches – intensive and extensive – which are also known as inductive and deductive approaches. The extensive (deductive) approach is mostly applied to quantitative methods and analyses that look for patterns, causes and relationships. These often provide a weaker and limited explanation of the attained results (Crowther and Lancaster, 2008). On the contrary, the intensive (inductive)

approach is mostly applicable to qualitative research and focuses on the individual actor that establish casual links or relationships confined to the situation under study (Sayer, 2000). The present study adopted the inductive approach where individuals' accounts, experiences and perceptions of the relationship between gender and organisational change management and its impact on OCM outcomes were sought through a semi-structured qualitative study. The inductive or intensive approach advocates the development of a theory or conceptual framework from analysed data or the outcomes of research findings (Saunders et al., 2007). This research was partly undertaken to help identify and recommend strategies that will assist with successfully managing change programmes in organisations. Consequently, the adoption of the study's inductive approach led to the development of the gender-inclusive model for organisational change management from the findings obtained from this study.

Easter-Smith (2002) outlines three reasons why it is pertinent or relevant for a researcher to choose a particular research approach. These he proposed as:

- ❖ It guides researchers to make more informed decisions about their research designs.
- ❖ It boosts researchers' confidence and helps them to recognise and build on the strengths and weaknesses of a chosen approach, as it helps them to take advantage of the strengths and mitigate the weaknesses of the chosen approach.
- ❖ A knowledge of different research approaches enables researchers to adopt a research design that will help cater for any arising constraints.

In essence, this research follows an intensive or inductive approach due to its suitability for studying human behaviour in organisations and its general flexibility. The approach

enables flexibility in the choice of research design and the sample size, where it may not be required to establish and test theories and a hypothesis (Crowther and Lancaster, 2008). Crowther and Lancaster (2008) argued that researchers can build on what is observed, thus permitting an issue to be studied and approached by several possible means with alternative explanations for the studied problem. However, an inductive strategy can be much more time-consuming, as it takes longer to collect the data (Saunders et al., 2007).

The adoption of an inductive approach is more likely to work with this study's qualitative data and it allows the use of a variety of data collection methods and analysis in order to establish different views of the phenomena (Easeterby-Smith et al., 2002). The inductive approach uses the reverse process of conducting research to that of the deductive approach. Unlike a deductive approach, the inductive approach involves drawing inferential generalisations out of observations (Bryan and Bell, 2011). For example, this study reached some speculative outcomes based on the observation of trends and patterns mentioned by the respondents. A typical example was the recipients' perceptions of most of the female leaders being more transactional and male leaders more transformational. Speculative inferences were drawn that societal expectations were influencing women to be more transactional and men to be more transformational, contrary to the existing literature. The intrinsic complexities of this study called for an intensive approach that addresses issues relating to factors contributing to the reported 70 per cent failure of OCM processes, instead of dwelling on extensive or deductive approaches that look for patterns with weaker and more limited explanations (Sayer, 2000).

Table 9: The Key Differences between Extensive and Intensive Approaches (Saunders et al., 2009)

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The key aspect of a research process is the ability of researchers to choose a particular research method over others, as they serve as guidelines to responding and resolving research problems (Creswell, 1994). Thus, the next section presents the reasons why the chosen research method (qualitative method) was adopted over others.

4.4.2 Appropriateness of Qualitative Method for Change Management and Gender Studies

Looking through the extant literature on OCM, Partington (2008) posits that the majority of OCM studies (e.g., Dempster and Paton, 2002 and Paton and McCalman, 2008) employ quantitative methods. Contrary to other change management research, this research takes a different platform by adopting a qualitative method. However, there has been OCM research (e.g., Partington, 1997) conducted using qualitative methods. Essentially, qualitative research in OCM has been restrained, with analysis focusing on the adoption of quantitative analysis methods or tools (Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall, 2008).

Qualitative researchers have in recent times employed several methods of collecting data, such as direct observations, participation in the field, review of documents and archives, and in-depth interviewing. Quantitative studies on the other hand add to the conceptual understanding of an entity in a constrained manner. Therefore, the use of a quantitative design or method may perhaps be suitable when used as part of mixed or dual methods to illustrate other standpoints of OCM and gender studies. A mixed-method methodology leads to the convergent validation or justification of research outcomes through internal crosschecking (Gill and Johnson, 1997). Poole and Van de Ven (2005:56) further assert that “a thorough understanding of the buzzing, blooming, and confusing dynamics often observed in organisational changes probably requires the use of multiple approaches for understanding organisational change”. Thus, a mixed method was initially considered suitable for this study but was not employed, because it was likely to be inefficient and ineffective, as it requires a great deal of time to analyse data (Robson, 2011). Drawing on the above typology, one could argue that the mixed method should have been adopted to validate and crosscheck results. In response, the validation, credibility and

trustworthiness of results were also taken into consideration. Nevertheless, another alternative could be to send the respondents the transcript of their interview conversation, for them to verify its accuracy, in order to illustrate its trustworthiness and validity (Kumar, 2011). Hence, a participant's information check was adopted, where some of the participants were contacted to check the accuracy and validity of what was shared. This will be discussed in detail in the validity section.

In quantitative research, the person conducting it is most likely detached from the study or sample, which results in the researcher ignoring newly evolving factors that may be major determinants or contributors to the area under study (Congner, 1998). On the contrary, qualitative researchers are usually immersed in the study, which offers them a holistic view of evolving factors that may arise (Congner, 1998). This was the case with this study, because the researcher was deeply immersed in the collected data and a great deal of time was spent analysing it. This helped to identify emerging factors, trends and patterns that were clustered into categories and sub-categories. In addition, qualitative methods, unlike other methods, can critically access and be more readily used alongside other methods, perspectives, designs and models, such as critical realism and phenomenology. Interviews and a multi-case design were chosen for this study. Hence, qualitative research was deemed appropriate and suitable for the chosen critical realism and phenomenological positions, due to the method's emphasis on its components going beneath the surface area of the problem at stake and looking into the researched area from a deeper dimension (Bhaskar, 1997 and Easton, 2010).

It was perceived that leaders' and subordinates' perceptions of gender leadership differences in managing changes in organisations would be better achieved through

qualitative methods, because of the method's appropriateness for studying an issue in an in-depth manner. Also, there was a perceived need to extend the scope of OCM studies beyond their usual assessment by interpreting the experiences of leaders and subordinates, especially when expected outcomes have not been achieved (Abrahamson, 2002 and Linstead et al., 2005). Correspondingly, the adoption of the qualitative methods permitted in-depth knowledge to be gained of current change management strategies and men and women's approaches to change scenarios, and their impact on OCM outcomes. Such an in-depth understanding or knowledge could not be achieved by quantitative methods, such as the adoption of a questionnaire method (Paton, 2002). More so, the shared experiences and perceptions of male and female leaders and subordinates was too complex to be comprehended by employing a quantitative method (Conway and Briner, 2005).

In sum, this research employed a qualitative research method over others initially considered, such as a quantitative or mixed-method approach. This was because it was considered to be a more suitable and appropriate method to collect, interpret and analyse the complexities of the existing relationship between gender leadership differences and OCM. The adopted method also adopts a multi-case design using semi-structured interviews to comprehend, explore, gather and analyse data (Merriam, 2009). This then leads to presenting the research design and its appropriateness for the study.

4.4.3 Appropriateness of Multi-Case Design for Change Management and Gender Studies

It is pertinent to explore and decide on the most appropriate and result-oriented designs or strategies allied with the study's aim(s) and objective(s) while conducting research (Punch, 2000). A research design or method is a unique plan of action that entails observations and the analysis of generated input and sample size through a defined approach, procedure and research tools (Punch, 2000). Research design is also known as a research strategy. The research design refers to the general plan of how a researcher intends to go about answering his or her research question(s), and consists of clear objectives derived from a researcher's questions, sources of data collection, the consideration of inevitable constraints (e.g., time, resources, access to data, location etc.) and ethical considerations (Saunders et al., 2007). Quinlan (2012) further describes it as an overall strategy that a researcher chooses to integrate various research components in a consistent and logical manner, hence ensuring that every adopted design or strategy effectively addresses the research problem. The function of the research design is to ensure that all evidences obtained enable the researcher to effectively address the identified or stated research problem as explicitly as possible (Quinlan, 2012). In essence, it is the overall and logical plan of every research (Yin, 2003).

4.4.3.1 Interview Design

The interview design provides an opportunity to ascertain whether a relationship exists between two elements (Oates, 2006). Bryan and Bell (2011:54) describe interview design as that which employs a cross-sectional design in which data is predominantly collected through the use of questionnaires or interviews on multiple cases. Arguably, interview designs are often carried out as part of non-experimental fixed designs that can be used

for descriptive and explanatory research purposes. In contrast, survey questionnaires are often close-ended and may not be suitable for exploratory research, which largely uses open-ended questions in an attempt to explore identified areas. It is likely to also be inefficient and ineffective, as it requires a great deal of time to analyse data (Robson, 2011). Hence, this was one of the major reasons why the survey questionnaire was not adopted from the other types of survey designs that exist in management research. One of the benefits of adopting an interview design was its usefulness in gathering consistent, credible rich data from a large population, which gives room for the analysis of a large amount of data (Avison, 1993 and Kelly et al., 2003).

4.4.3.2 Multiple-Case Design

Goodrick (2014) describes a multiple-case design (also known as a comparative case study) as one that examines two or more cases in a way that produces more generalisable results or knowledge about the researched area, most often providing answers to how and why particular organisational programmes or policies work or fail to achieve the desired outcome. A case study design, on the other hand, is an in-depth examination of a single case – such as a policy, programme interventions and implementation processes often undertaken over a period of time (Goodrick, 2014). It is worth clarifying that this study adopted a multiple-case design over a case study design, the reason being that Goodrick (2014) advocates multiple-case design when there is a need to understand and explain how certain organisational features work within a context that influences the success or failure of a programme or policy implementation across different cases and not necessarily studying the organisation in an indepth manner (Goodrick, 2014). Furthermore, Goodrick (2014) postulates that the information from a multiple-case study is valuable for tailoring interventions to support the achievement of organisational

intended outcomes. The lines of Goodrick (2014) are consistent with the main intentions of this study, where the aim of collecting information from the multiple cases is to produce analytical generalisable results and knowledge about men's and women's approaches to change scenarios and their potential impact on OCM desired outcomes across different organisational cases. Furthermore, the multiple-case design was adopted for this study in order to analyse and synthesise similarities, differences and patterns across two or more cases that share a common goal. This will enable the researcher to suggest valuable interventions to support the achievement of the concepts' intended outcomes, which is consistent with the thoughts of Goodrick (2014).

Dube and Pare (2003) advocate a multiple-case design as one that uses several qualitative data collection methods, such as interviews, document analysis and observations. Similarly, Goodrick (2014) argues that multiple-case designs often employ qualitative methods, given that the focus is on generating a good understanding of the cases' perspectives and the actual research context. This study adopted multiple-case design, which is congruent with qualitative research such as this. Another rationale for adopting the multi-case design was to enable the researcher to study the research problem in a natural setting and to generate theories from practice (Poole and Van de Ven, 2005). The adopted design's main purpose was to obtain a detailed, in-depth understanding of the 40 participants' perspectives from the five organisational cases where the semi-structured interviews were conducted (Patton, 2002). Also, the multi-case design enabled the researcher to understand the nature and complexity of the processes, contents, procedures and mechanisms with the use of 'how, what and why?' questions to investigate the concept of gender and OCM studies. According to Goodrick (2014), while some degree of comparison is at the heart of a multiple-case design, the distinguishing feature of such

studies is the emphasis on examining causality – in this case, the extent to which the adopted organisational strategies or interventions impacted on the outcomes. The employed multi-case design or strategy is also an appropriate way to research an area that has been under-researched or represented, as mentioned in Chapter 1 as one of the problem statements of the research (Benbasat et al., 1987).

Furthermore, a multi-case design may be simple or complex, but very often a case may be randomly selected (Silverman, 2000). In contrast, cases in this study were not randomly selected; criteria were set to recruit the participants and organisations that participated in this research. Qualitative researchers adopting any associated design must be able to overcome the likely tendency of selecting a case that conforms to their argument (Poole and Van de Ven, 2005). This is because researchers may be tempted to select case(s) that would support their arguments, rather than selecting case(s) that would give accurate data of their proposed hypothesis. Care was taken to select cases that gave a clearer understanding of the concepts that were studied.

In addition, Stake (2000) outlined intrinsic, instrumental and collective cases (multi-case design) as the three basic case study designs. He described collective case design as the study of cases that investigate general phenomena. In a collective case study, a researcher may choose several cases to study rather than just one. However, each case study may be instrumental to learning, and there might be significant co-ordination of individual studies (Stake, 1998). Correspondingly, this study adopted collective or multi-case design.

Multiple-case design can be exploratory in nature and used to explore situations where the phenomenon under investigation or examination has no clear set outcome (Yin, 2003). The employed multi-case design or strategy is also an appropriate way to research an area

that has been under-researched or represented. According to Oates (2006), a collective or multi-case design can be used in research that has limited literature on a particular topic, which is the case with this research.

Punch (1998:53) outlines some features of a multi-case design that guided the path of the multi-case design adopted for this study:

- ❖ Early identification of set boundaries for each case. Some cases were identified in the early stages of this research and were contacted prior to the field study
- ❖ Unit of analysis must be thoroughly defined in order to clarify research design. Units of analysis were defined as the change leaders and subordinates or recipients of change
- ❖ Each case is a case of something of interest to researchers. Each case was of particular interest and importance to the researcher, as they all had undergone change processes
- ❖ Research problems were established and geared to suit the specific features of selected cases

In sum, this study employed multiple-case design, as it was perceived to be appropriate for investigating a contemporary social research phenomenon such as the one in this study. Multi-case designs are used to collect descriptive and exploratory data through an examination of events in a particular organisation (Boodhoo and Purmessor, 2009). The rationale behind the adoption of the multiple-case design was to study in detail the five selected cases or organisations, using relevant methods that were deemed appropriate for this research. Furthermore, the employed design enabled the researcher to collect

different types of data from different cases or organisations, in order to have a wider scope of coverage and a clearer picture of the issue under study (Bonoma, 1985).

The multiple-case design further complemented the interview method used for collecting data in this research. As indicated earlier, a survey questionnaire does not require observing or enquiring the daily behaviour or routine of the respondents, unlike interviews, which constitute rigorous and comprehensive data collection (Silverman, 2000). The researcher further realised that the strengths of the multi-case design enhanced the use of a variety of methods and approaches. Dooley (2002) notes that the power of multi-case design lies in the capacity to use different methodologies within the data collection process, and to compare across cases for reasons of validity, accuracy and credibility. Nevertheless, it is important to bear in mind that the adopted designs tend to be selective, by focusing only on one or two issues that happen to be fundamental to what is being examined or studied. However, they helped to achieve triangulation (Tellis, 1997). Yin (2009) further accentuates the significance of triangulation, which originates from ethical requirements with respect to the validity and credibility of adopted methodologies. This leads to the multi-case design being congruent with the cross-case analysis that was used to compare and contrast data from the five selected organisations.

Philosophically, cases or case study research are firmly entrenched in critical realist research, hence are consistent with the realist view (Miles and Hubberman, 2002). The adopted designs (multiple-case) further appealed as being more suitable for the adopted philosophical (critical realism and phenomenological) positions of this research (Marobela, 2006). This is because both philosophical positions and the adopted research designs recognise the necessity of a cross-case and contextual analysis of data (Miles and

Hubberman, 2002). In addition, the adopted multiple-case design and critical realism and phenomenological approaches agree with the examination of multiple cases to be studied (Partington, 1997).

A multiple-case design was adopted to gain further insights into the area under study, through different cases and different sectors, such as the private, public and health sectors used in this research. One major aim of the employment of the multi-case design was to increase generalisability for the better examination of processes and outcomes across different cases and sectors, with the reassurance that the events and processes of detailed settings are not all unique (Miles and Hubberman, 2002). It is argued that the greater the number of cases, the greater the richness and validity of the collected data, which enhances the analysis and interpretation of the results (Merriam, 2009). In essence, the outcome of each case can be cross-examined in detail using cross-case analysis or descriptive case analysis (Miles and Hubberman, 1994).

One of the main reasons for selecting a multi-case and interview design was because of their suitability for studying areas that have a deficiency in knowledge (Amaratunga et al., 2002 and Collis and Hussey, 2009). Nevertheless, amidst the stated rationales for the adoption of the chosen designs, the overall pre-eminence of these designs evolved from the rationale and scope of this study, which involves some complex problems of limitations in process and content failures. The next section presents the sample location where data was drawn and the reasons for the adoption of the chosen location.

4.4.4 Research Location and Reasons for Choice of Study Location

The particular context and location of this research is Nigeria, in West Africa. Nigeria is reported to be the most populated nation in Africa and endowed with plenty of natural

resources (Economic Commission for Africa, 2005). Organisational development and organisational continuous improvement are rapidly advancing, yet organisational change initiatives are not growing at the same pace, leaving organisations with the adverse effect of change processes (Olotu, 2012). The study focuses on the stated location because it is one of the most industrialised countries in Africa. Despite its rich contents and developmental initiatives, it is perceived that Nigeria still lags behind in OCM initiatives and interventions and how to successfully implement such changes (Nosakhare, 2000). Considering the effects of the inadequate handling of such initiatives on organisations and employees, the study perceives a crucial need to help the motherland out of its negligence of significant OCM processes. While it is well-known that the country is blessed with rich oil contents, its vast growth has been hampered by many factors. Slow OCM initiatives and interventions appear to be part of these impediments (Nosakhare, 2000).

Chapter 3, which reviewed the relevant literature on organisational change and leadership practices in the chosen location, demonstrated that Nigeria is a paramount and classic example of a country in Sub-Sahara Africa. Its population was estimated to be around 177.1 million in 2015, 173.6 million in 2013 and 158.3 million in 2011, with an urban population of 46.9 per cent and an annual growth percentage change of 2.47 in the year 2014 (CIA World FactBook 2015, Trading Economics 2014, National Population Commission 2012, World Internet Stats 2010 and World Bank 2004). This study focused on obtaining its data from Abuja, the current state capital of the country. The primary reason for choosing Abuja over other commercial, financial and business quarters or states was because the researcher would gain better access to organisations that have undergone changes in the last 10 years in the state capital. Additionally, safety measures

were considered because some parts of the country were categorised as unsecured research zones, due to security issues.

For the reasons stated above, the study focused on the state capital of Abuja to collect data from organisations undergoing, or already having undergone, change interventions.

4.5 SECTION 3: DATA COLLECTION FOR THE STUDY

This section presents the methods employed for collecting data. It starts with a discussion of sampling methods, which highlights the selection criteria for organisations and participants. The details of the organisations that represent the cases of the study are further provided, followed by the preliminary study (pilot study) conducted prior to the main semi-structured interviews. Also presented is the ethical consent procedure followed prior to the field study for data collection. Further presented is the research validity and trustworthiness of the research.

4.5.1 Sample and Selection of Cases for the Study

Two major sampling techniques (probability and non-probability) were considered for this study. Probability sampling entails a sample being selected from a population, which leads to findings of the research being generalised to the sample population. In addition, probability sampling involves transferability of conclusions, which is not the aim of this study. Consequently, probability sampling was considered ill-suited. Merriam (2009) and Partington (2008) linked most qualitative researches to non-probability sampling, where samples are selected based on where the researcher can gain knowledge and comprehensibility. It was further stated that non-probability usually takes the form of purposive and purposeful non-probability sampling (Patton, 2002). When comparing both forms of non-probability sampling, it can be seen that the strength of purposeful non-

probability sampling lies in researchers selecting appropriate cases or information for comprehensive scrutiny (Merriam, 2009). To a greater degree, this could enhance a researcher's ability to analyse the problems under investigation (Patton, 2002 and Merriam, 2009). This study thus adopted principles of a purposeful non-probability sampling, where criteria were set to select the participants and organisations that participated in the research. In finding rich and appropriate cases for research, LeCompte and Preissle (2009) posit that researchers need to be aware of the basic requirements and processes involved in undertaking a research that involves a field phase, thus preparing a comprehensive list that would help with the selection of cases or organisations accordingly. There are different criteria for selecting cases for qualitative studies such as this one. The first criterion should be to maximise what is to be learnt, considering that the cases are likely to lead to understandings, assertions and even at times alterations of generalisations (Stake, 1995).

Considering the lines of LeCompte and Preissle (2009) and Stake (1995), illustrated below are the processes and criteria used in the recruitment and selection of organisations and other participants. The set criteria helped to identify the participants and organisations that participated in this research. These criteria were set in two phases; criteria for selecting organisations and, secondly, criteria for recruiting participants from the organisations that assented to participating in the research.

Recruitment of Organisations (Cases)

❖ A search was carried out for organisations that had undergone change processes within the private, public and health sectors. This was because the study deemed it fit to

explore the perceptions and experiences of change leaders and recipients from different sectors, in order to have an in-depth understanding of current change management strategies, and men and women's approaches to change scenarios and their impact on OCM outcomes. The search began with an internet search and telephone conversations with some close friends, relatives and previous colleagues who work in the state capital of the country. The researcher contacted sixteen organisations for recruitment or participatory purposes. However, only three of the contacted organisations responded, leaving a significant number of the organisations not responding to the messages at all.

❖ Having identified organisations that appeared to be relevant to the study, the researcher sought consent via emails and mostly through telephone calls. Most of the contacted organisations did not respond to their emails but phone calls yielded a more positive outcome.

❖ The first organisation that assented to participate in the research was a federal medical health centre, the second organisation was a banking financial institution and third organisations was a government ministry from the public sector and the rest of the organisations were secured from a snowball approach, which will be discussed in detail in subsequent sections. Afterwards, permission was obtained from the managing directors of the three organisations to carry out interviews with selected participants, without any specific conditions other than the fact that participation must be completely voluntary.

Having received confirmation from the organisations that assented to take part, the following criteria were also set to recruit and select members of staff (leaders and recipients) who participated in this research.

Recruitment of Respondents

- ❖ Participating male and female leaders were selected based on being in senior positions and having led and managed employees or recipients under change programmes in organisations.
- ❖ Participating male and female recipients were selected based on having experienced organisational change programmes and have been led and managed by male and female leaders under organisational change programmes.
- ❖ The final criteria were to ensure that the participants did not know the researcher at the time of the study – this was to eliminate any form of bias that would affect the credibility and validity of the results.

Based on the recruitment and selection criteria specified above, a total of five cases or organisations (including organisations that were selected through snowballing) were recruited and selected, with similarities and commonalities of having undergone change processes. According to Goodrick (2014), an understanding of each case in a multiple-case study is important for establishing the foundation for the conceptual framework that will be used in the cross-case comparison. The details of the organisations are presented below. For reasons of confidentiality, management and some of the participants requested not to be identified by their names. Therefore, organisations and participants were assigned pen names as shown in the brief introduction to cases or organisations.

CASE I – ARDENCY HEALTH CENTRE

Case I is a federal medical health centre and has been pen-named ‘Ardency Health Centre’, by request of the organisation and its participants. It has over 1,600 medical and non-medical employees. It is also a tertiary and referral health institution that receives

referrals from other hospitals in remote areas. It is based in Abuja in Nigeria, and its key mission is to provide healthcare delivery to the entire populace and beyond by offering service delivery and vehicles through which healthcare is offered to people in need of it. Case I aims to be a first-rate hospital that renders quality and affordable healthcare services.

Case I has undergone substantial change processes and implementation, and changes introduced into the organisation were all planned and communicated prior to implementation. According to the leaders, the discussed changes were said to have taken place in the last ten years. There is no specific department known as a change management department. However, there are two offices (head of admin and head of clinical services), and a service commission unit that execute changes. The stated changes are communicated to members of staff through memos and verbal communication. In addition, further details of the respondents such as gender, age, status, position and length of service are presented in Chapter 5 in Table 14.

CASE II – BEULA NATIONWIDE BANK OF AFRICA

Case II is a financial institution from the private sector, with over 1,500 employees. Also, it is worth noting that Case II was pen-named ‘Beula Nationwide Bank of Africa’, for confidentiality reasons. The institution is organised into different units responsible for managing different business operations. The organisation has undergone substantial change processes and implementation, especially in the last six years. Most of the changes introduced into the organisation were pre-planned; however, changes were not properly communicated prior to implementation according to the respondents. There is no specific department created to handle change initiatives and processes. Every head of department

handles and manages issues that arise from the changes introduced. Participants' details are further provided in Chapter 6.

CASE III – CATALITA TRUST BANK

Case III is a financial institution from the private sector, with over 2,000 employees. It is a commercial and financial institution that takes customer deposits for safe keeping and grants facilities and loans to those who are in need of such services. The organisation has also undergone substantial change processes and implementations, which according to the leaders mostly occurred in the last seven years. The changes introduced into the organisation were mostly planned, according to the recipients. However, they were not communicated prior to implementation. There is no specific department for handling change processes and their effects, but there is a system or platform managed by human capital management (under HR). Under this system, members of staff can relay complaints regarding any concerns about the implemented changes. Participants' details are further provided in Chapter 6.

CASE IV – MINISTRY OF CONSTRUCTION

Case IV is from the public sector, with over 2,500 employees. It is a construction ministry that monitors and facilitates the smooth flow of federal government projects, while making sure that all undertaken projects adhere to specified requirements. The organisation has also undergone substantial change processes and implementations. According to the leaders, the discussed changes were said to have taken place in the last eight years. According to the leaders and recipients, changes introduced into the organisation have all been planned and were well-communicated prior to implementation. However, while there is no specific department to manage the pre- and post-effects of changes, there are set principles to guide the changes that take place in the organisation.

CASE V – MINISTRY OF MEDIA AFFAIRS

Case V is also from the public sector, with over 2,800 employees. It is a social media and research office that publishes government bulletins on social media. They further rank ministries and evaluate their performance index. Essentially, they supervise ministries and publish their work. They further conduct studies on the impact of some newly implemented government policies on stakeholders and the general public. The organisation has also undergone substantial change processes and implementations, which were reported to have occurred in the last five years. According to the leaders, the changes introduced into the organisation were all planned and were effectively communicated to employees prior to execution. This was confirmed by the recipients who participated in the research. However, there is no specific department that manages the pre- and post-effects of changes introduced into the organisation. Similar to Case IV, the federal government has laid-down principles that guide the management of introduced changes.

4.5.2 Preparation Process Prior to Field Study

The field study for this research was planned prior to its start. The study's initial plan was to adopt a mixed-method methodology by conducting semi-structured interviews and to adopt a survey questionnaire to validate the results achieved from the interviews. After a careful assessment of the number and richness of the collected data, the researcher and supervisory team agreed to make the research a pure qualitative study and validate the findings with other validation instruments, such as a participant information check. The preparation process started with the researcher preparing letters, messages and a participant information sheet that briefly described the research and requirements for the interview exercise. Prior to contacting organisations, consent was sought from the

University. The research adhered to Coventry University's ethical guidelines, while being assessed and moderated by a supervisory team. Approved letters and messages were sent to organisations in order to gain access to a proposed interview.

Whilst awaiting a response from the organisations (which took 3-4 months), the next stage involved adopting the opportunistic approach of Hammersely and Atkinson (1995). The approach involved members of the research supervisory team contacting organisations that could grant access for research to be conducted in their organisations. In addition to the supervisory team's help, family members and friends were also contacted to see if they could help to obtain assent or consent from organisations that met the stated organisation and participant recruitment criteria. This effort yielded a positive response from the contacted organisations. However, the granted access was not sufficient for an intensive interviewing exercise, if the set aims and objectives of the research were to be achieved.

Through persistence and resilience, managing directors of Cases I, II and IV assented to the researcher's request and requested a letter of affirmation from Coventry University to indicate that the researcher has been permitted to conduct the stated research. Correspondingly, a letter was prepared by the researcher's Director of Studies, Prof. Jim Stewart, as shown in Appendix four. This was taken along with consent and participant letters, as shown in Appendix 1, to the field for the interview exercise. Participants were given the consent form and the participant's information letters prior to their interview; these explicitly stated the interview procedures. This was done in good time to give respondents sufficient time to go through the details of the research and decide whether

or not they wished to carry on with the exercise, because the exercise was done on a voluntary basis as stated in the participant information sheet (see Appendix 1).

The study needed other organisations for further interviewing. Thus, after gaining consent from the three organisations, the snowball sampling technique of Goodman (1961) was applied. This involved some participants in the organisations that had already given their consent to participate giving the researcher details of other organisations to contact. Snowball sampling successfully resulted in two other organisations (Cases III and V) from the private and public sector that met the recruitment criteria. In sum, the study interviewed 40 male and female leaders and followers from five organisations. There was no set of conditions specified by the organisations or managing directors; however, the researcher was clearly advised that interviews were only to be conducted with voluntary participants who met the research criteria. Also, the researcher was introduced to relevant departments and participants who met the research criteria on a face-face basis, in order to create an awareness of the research being conducted in the applicable departments. Consequently, male and female leaders and recipients that met the recruitment criteria were approached by the researcher to arrange a suitable time and day for the interview exercise to be conducted.

4.5.3 Pilot Study

Pilot studies are often described as a small replication of the main study and are essentially intended to identify possible frailties, ambiguities, limitations and issues associated with the research. This is usually intended to enable researchers to make amendments and to mitigate any associated limitations prior to the main study or research (Sarantakos, 2005). The respondents involved in a pilot study should be judgement samples that are similar to the respondents who will participate in the interview exercise,

since its essence is to obtain feedback on possible issues and flaws (Oppenheim, 1992). Permission was sought from Cases I and II and the researcher carried out a pilot study on two leaders (male and female) and two recipients (male and female) from two of the sectors. The preliminary pilot study started with an introduction of the researcher, followed by an explanation of the purpose of the study to the pilot sample. Undertaking the pilot study prior to the main interview helped the researcher to familiarise herself with the environment, the clarity of the questions and the expected responses from the participants. It further assisted with being able to estimate the time that each of the interviews would last and with testing the suitability of the research method and instruments (such as the audio recorder, etc.).

Prominent above all was the fact that it provided an opportunity for the researcher to practice the research before the main exercise, in order to mitigate mistakes that may be encountered in the course of the main interviews. It also helped with measuring the sample frame and estimating the level of response, to know if they were adequate enough. The outcome of the preliminary study further confirmed the objectives of the study and enabled the researcher to adjust the interview questions accordingly. Consequently, the pilot study assisted in identifying areas or questions that the participants of the main study might find difficult to understand. A typical example (see Appendix 2.2) was one of the questions that asked the participants whose sexes' strategy they considered most effective and suitable. It was observed that the question was somewhat confusing and lacked clarity. Such questions were revised and made clearer and open to draw more discussions. Having mentioned the benefits of the preliminary study on this research, presented below is the feedback from the pilot study that was conducted across the three sectors prior to the main study.

4.5.3.1 Feedback from Preliminary Field Study

The pilot participants found almost all of the questions and instructions clear and understandable; however, they had difficulty with responding to a few of the interview questions. Examples of the questions they found particularly difficult to answer were unexpected ones on a brief history or background of the organisations. Also, the pilot sample struggled to answer questions such as ‘Could you please share your perception of the impact that gender leadership differences may have on organisational change outcome?’ There were a lot of pauses and clearing of throats. Consequently, the interview brief was reviewed and amended (see Appendix 2.1. and 2.2 for the initial and final, or revised, interview brief). Observed difficult questions were revised, refined and made simpler for better understanding, in order to have participants share useful experiences rather than just providing answers to the questions. Also, this led to issuing out the interview brief and participant information and consent forms for participants to go through before the main interview exercise began. The next section discusses the main interview exercise.

4.6 INTERVIEWS

Interviews are essential means of communication or an exchange of information between different parties. Dwyer (1993) distinguished between interviews and casual conversation by presenting interviews as being structured, controlled, planned and prearranged by the interviewer prior to when they are to be conducted. Interviews have a predetermined purpose between various parties who might be of the same or a different status (Dwyer, 1993). Marshall and Rossman (1989) and Putins and Petelin, (1996) suggest a field study with in-depth interviewing if a particular research is of a descriptive and exploratory nature.

This study adopted interviews because they were considered to be a key feature to successfully conducting a qualitative research. According to Walsham (1995) and Levy and Powell (2003), interviews provide good access to the interpretations, views and perceptions of the participants regarding what is being investigated, which is congruent with the adopted philosophical critical realist and phenomenological positions for this study. In addition, Gillham (2000) further accentuates that with the employment of an interviewing method in a multi-case design, semi-structured interviews are the most significant form of interviewing. Hence, this study chose semi-structured interviews over highly structured or unstructured interviews because semi-structured interviews were considered to be more flexible, enabling interviewers to extract or gain rich and useful data from the research. This is congruent with the lines of Levy and Powell (2003) who infer that semi-structured interviews are likely to give interviewers more useful and relevant data due to their flexibility in allowing more probing and open-ended questions. Hence, the main source of data was collected through semi-structured interviews. The semi-structured interviews assisted with gaining an in-depth understanding of the current change management strategies and men's and women's approaches to organisational change scenarios and their potential impact on OCM outcomes.

A total of 40 semi-structured interviews, which lasted between 45 and 75 minutes, were conducted in the five cases or organisations across. In each organisation, eight respondents were interviewed, comprising of two male leaders, two female leaders, and two male and two female recipients. Male and female leaders were selected based on their experience of having led and managed employees under organisational change programmes. Similarly, the male and female recipients were selected based on being managed by male and female leaders under organisational change programmes. Due to

time constraints, the researcher and supervisory team agreed to conduct eight interviews per organisation, making it a total of 40 interviews from the five organisations. The interviews were conducted across various departments, such as marketing, production, clinical services, human resources, customer service, IT, corporate social responsibility, administration, nursing, construction and accounting. Further details of their departments and responsibilities are provided in the analysis Chapters 5, 6 and 7.

The questions for the interviews were open-ended in nature, where participants were further encouraged to elaborate on their responses and cite examples where applicable. The 40 interviews were conducted between May and July 2013 in Abuja, the state capital of Nigeria. Prior to the interview exercise, the participants were given an interview brief, or guide, that consisted of the questions for the interviews (see Appendix 2). This was to help the participants to prepare for unexpected questions such as sharing some information on the background of the organisation, rather than being caught unawares with what was to be asked in the interview, as was observed in the pilot study. Also, the prior issuance of the interview brief helped ease the tension of the participants before the exercise, as they already had an idea of what they were to be asked. Additionally, this helped the participants to have prior reflection on the experiences that they wished to share with the researcher.

Two different interview briefs were designed for the leaders and recipients or followers. The interview brief for the leaders had twenty-five questions with six sections whilst the brief for the recipients or followers had twenty-two questions, also with six sections. The questions in section one gathered information on the background of the cases or organisations where interviews were conducted. This was in line with Goodrick's (2014)

thoughts of having an adequate understanding of the different cases in order to establish the foundation for the model that will be used in the cross-case comparison of the cases. The second section gathered information on the respondents' or participants' backgrounds in terms of their position, roles and responsibilities, age and length of service. Section three enquired about the participants' understanding of change management and the types or kinds of changes that took place in the five organisations. Section four enquired about the adopted strategies used to manage the implemented change(s), whilst section five asked questions regarding male and female organisational change leadership preferences. Section six enquired about gender leadership differences and their impact on OCM outcomes.

At the start of the interview exercise, respondents were given a participant information letter (with explicit details of the research purpose, aims and objectives) and an informed consent form to gain their consent before proceeding with the exercise. The forms were completed and returned before the interview exercise took place. The reason for handing out these letters prior to the interview was to give interviewees a better idea of the research and expectations of the exercise. Each of the interviews began with an introduction of the researcher and a brief explanation of the aim and objectives of the study (see Appendix 1).

Before the start of the interviews, consent was gained from the participants to record the interviews. Accordingly, interviews were audio-recorded with two instruments, a portable audio-recording device and software called Audacity, which was utilised with the use of the researcher's laptop. The interviews were later transcribed manually into a Microsoft Word 2012 document and safe-locked in an encrypted portable device. This

was followed with an initial data analysis that involved the coding and clustering of the collected data in the first stages of data analysis. For data protection and confidential assurance, it was agreed that the real names of respondents and organisations would not be used in the presentation of the findings. Therefore, pseudonyms were adopted and names of the organisations and participants were pen-named, as stated in previous sections.

Furthermore, all the participants were informed that they would be contacted via telephone or email for data validation purposes in order to achieve triangulation using a participant information check. This method of data validation will be discussed in more detail in the validation section of this chapter.

Stake (1995) suggests that researchers need to be careful not to hurriedly undertake such research, without reaching a saturation point. Correspondingly, interviews were conducted to the point that most employees started sharing similar kinds of experiences and perceptions of the ways that men and women managed the changes that took place in the organisation and their perceptions of their impact on OCM outcomes. Also, data was collected in two organisations from the same sector, specifically from the public and private sectors.

4.6.1 Ethical Considerations

It is often perceived that many organisations have a ‘human subjects committee’, whose primary aim is to protect the rights of human subjects engaged in any kind of research activity, inasmuch as it involves people or a living organism (Sekaran, 1992). The basic function of such a committee is to discharge moral and ethical responsibilities by studying the stated procedures in the research and authorising approval for primary data collection

to be carried out (Patel et al., 2006). It is imperative to follow the professional practices and ethical standards when carrying out research (Patel et al., 2006). Consequently, irrespective of the fact that this is a researcher-led investigative and explorative study, it adhered to the guideline and procedure of Coventry University's ethical committee.

Coventry University has an ethics committee whose primary aim is to approve all investigations involving human participants or living organisms under study before the research is conducted. The committee is principally responsible for ensuring that proper ethical standards are maintained and carried out in all investigative and explorative studies, like that of this study. The committee considers and comments on proposed investigations and states if the purpose and proposed methods are clear and productive (Patel et al., 2006). Thus, this research was ethically approved by a supervisory team and ethics committee of Coventry University (see Appendix 3). The University's ethics process started with an online project creation and registration, after which an electronic form was completed and signed, which was then moderated and countersigned by the researcher's Director of Studies (Prof. Jim Stewart). Through a series of stages, the electronic application was reviewed and approved by the University's ethics committee (see Appendix 3).

4.6.2 Research Validation and Credibility

Validation of findings, either by the respondents or any other means of validation, is an imperative means of ensuring the accuracy, credibility and trustworthiness of the collected data and the findings of the research obtained through semi-structured interviews, as in this study. Validity reflects the research's accuracy and whether the obtained findings represent what was stated and what occurred in the field (McGuiggan and Lee, 2008).

The main means of validation of the data and findings of this study was a participant information check, which is discussed below.

4.6.2.1 Participant Information Check

Most proponents of mixed methods of data collection suggest that researchers use different methods of data collection in order to achieve triangulation or validation of their results. However, Kumar (2011) suggests another means of triangulation or validation of findings, by transcribing interviews or field notes and sharing them with the research participants for confirmation and approval. Thus, the interviewees were pre-informed that the transcripts would be forwarded to them as a means or method of validation. During the field study, the email addresses and telephone or mobile numbers of the participants were collected after the interview exercise and a summary of each transcript was forwarded to the interviewees to check the accuracy of what they had shared or mentioned. Forwarded emails were followed up by phone calls to enhance the validation of the collected data. This was done after the first four stages (coding/clustering, inductive content, thematic template analysis and cross-case analysis) of data analysis. The adoption of the participant information check helped to eliminate or reduce researcher bias in order to produce reliable, valid, credible and trustworthy results, as suggested by Kumar (2011).

4.6.2.2 Accomplishment of Validity and Credibility

A participant information check was adopted to validate the findings of this study. This involved the participants verifying and confirming the forwarded transcripts as accurate and credible. Different methods, such as coding, descriptive data analysis, inductive content analysis, thematic analysis, individual template analysis and cross-case analysis, were also used to analyse and report data as a means of establishing validity and

credibility. All through the data collection, analysis and writing up of findings, the researcher continuously engaged in peer consultation with other researchers and the supervisory team, who are familiar with the practical and theoretical orientations of this research. In sum, the external validity of this research relied on a detailed account and confirmation or verification of shared opinions and facts through the adoption of a participant information check as recommended by Kumar (2011).

In eliminating researcher's bias, the researcher's ethnic, professional and gender identity intertwined at some instances of the data collection and analysis stage. For example, the respondents' comments on female leaders' strategies and their being portrayed as the most effective and successful managers of organisational change intertwined with the researcher's vantage point on organisations also recognising and adopting feminine values in managerial practices. However, the presented findings are an interpretation of what was heard, observed and experienced in and outside the field. In an effort to be transparent to participants and readers, the researcher clearly and explicitly presented the researcher's vantage points in the course of writing up the findings of this study.

4.7 SECTION 4: DATA ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

This section presents the units of analysis and the methods that were employed to analyse and communicate the obtained findings from the reviewed literature and field study.

There are different ways in which a researcher can communicate the findings of a qualitative study such as this. Kumar (2011) highlights three major ways in which a researcher can communicate the findings of his or her research:

1. Developing a narrative to describe a situation, event or instance

2. Identify the main themes that were predetermined or emerged from the field notes or transcription of an in-depth interview and write about them, extensively quoting the responses in verbatim format or paraphrased
3. In addition to approach two above, the main identified themes can be quantified in order to provide their prevalence, elements and significance

Correspondingly, this study adopted the second approach, where the main themes were identified, analysed and, where required, findings were communicated with direct quotes from respondents across the five organisations as the main means of conveying the obtained findings.

4.7.1 Unit of Analysis and Data Analysis Methods

The main unit of analysis for this study was male and female leaders and recipients who had managed and undergone change processes in organisations. The designs of the study were semi-structured interviews and multiple-case design, with multiple means or tools of analysis. Due to the descriptive and explorative nature of this study, data from the interviews was analysed employing the principles of thematic analysis, which is also known as template analysis. The reason for the adoption of template analysis, using principles of inductive thematic analysis, was to analyse and richly present individual participants' perceptions of the areas under study. Having adopted a multiple unit of analysis, an inductive content analysis and descriptive case, sometimes known as a case descriptive data analysis, were also employed. The adoption of the stated analytical tools entailed presenting data in a number of tables to reflect the basic details of the dataset. In addition, a cross-case analysis was employed to highlight similarities and differences across the five cases or organisations from the sectors. Each of the employed techniques or tools of analysis were used at different stages of the analysis. For example, the

employment of a template analysis, using principles of a thematic analysis and inductive content analysis, were used in analysing the first stage of analysis (respondents' transcript analysis).

Presented below in Figure 6 is a flow chart of data processing stages and discussed below the figure are the adopted data analysis methods used in the different stages of the analysis.

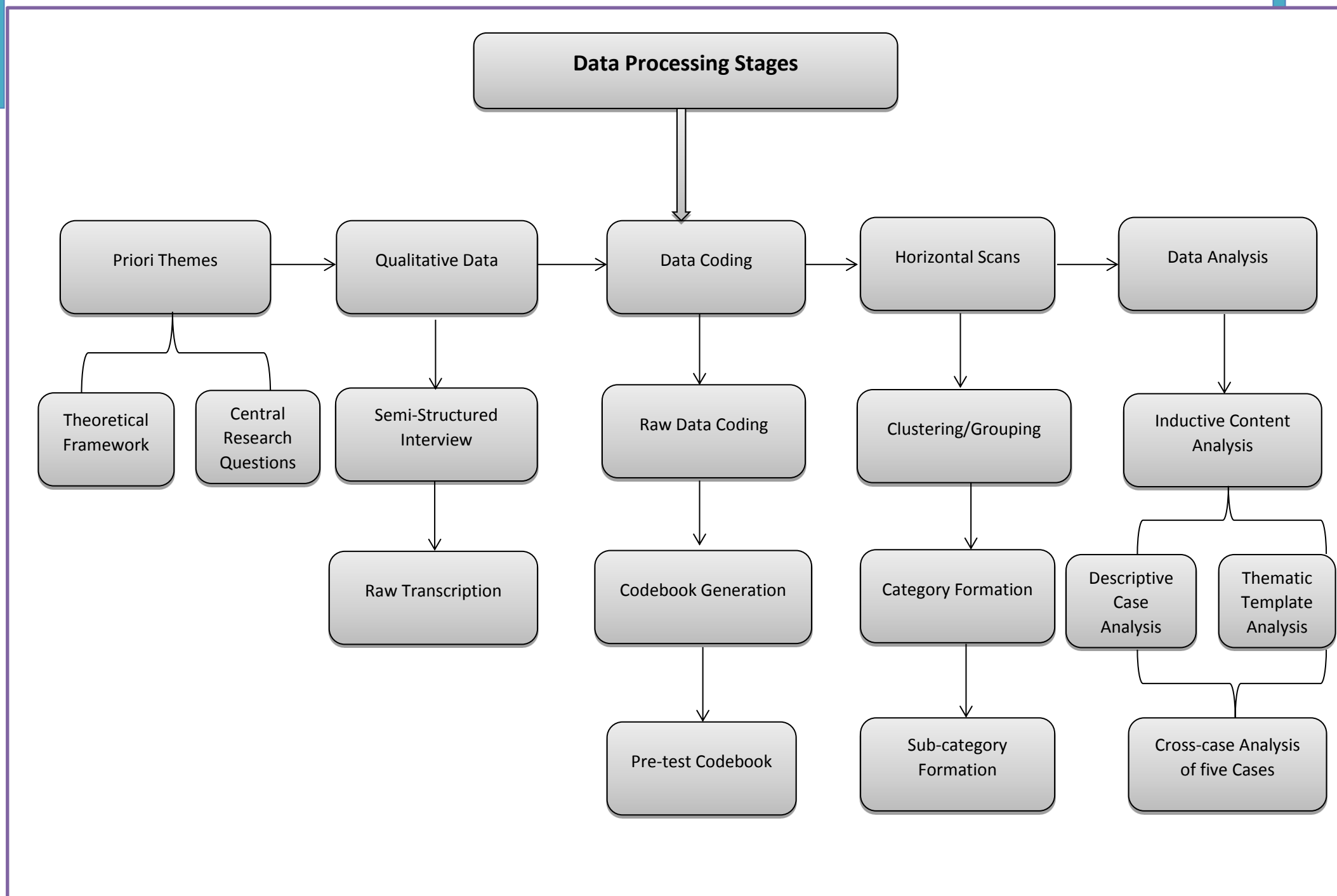


Figure 6. Flow Chart of the Data Processing Stages (Researcher 2016)

4.7.2 Inductive Content Analysis

Content analysis can be employed to quantitatively or qualitatively analyse data inductively or deductively. All the stated stages of this study's data analysis went through an inductive content analysis. The questions in the interview brief were mostly open-ended and required data condensation through the coding of participants' responses. Therefore, they went through an inductive content analysis. The process of the content analysis also revealed a number of recurring patterns and categories. For example, theme B explored the possible gender leadership differences that might exist in male and female OCM leadership styles. The employed inductive content analysis revealed some significant recurring patterns, where parts of the findings show that leaders' leadership behaviours, preferences and styles were influenced by national and sector culture, and the gender and behaviour of their followers as well as leaders' gender, age and personality. As themes were already predefined from a review of the literature and the study's central research questions, the identified recurring themes were clustered, categorised and sub-categorised.

Content analysis is sometimes treated similarly to thematic approaches, as it shares many of the principles and procedures of thematic analysis (Joffe and Yardley, 2004, as cited in Marks and Yardley, 2010). Joffe and Yardley (2004) infer content analysis as an acceptable method that investigates texts or images and construes the obtained results in a numerical description. Content analysis is a qualitative or quantitative method that is used to identify patterns across qualitative data; it often provides frequencies but focuses more on the micro level and quantitative analysis of an initial qualitative data (Wilkinson,

2000 and Ryan and Bernard, 2000). However, its unit of analysis tends to be more than a word (Bruan and Clarke, 2006).

The next sections lead to the analytical phases that were undergone in content analysing the obtained data inductively.

4.7.2.1 Coding

Coding has a unique role in analysing qualitative data. It involves identifying and recording one or more passages of text by assigning a word, name, phrase, number or symbol to each coding category (Gibbs, 2007). The act of coding in a qualitative study is the process by which data is symbolically assigned a summative short phrase and salient, essence-capturing and evocative attributes (Saldana, 2013). Anyone undertaking research who wishes to become exceptional in analysing qualitatively must learn to code well with an amount of ease. Arguably, the success of the research rests significantly on good coding (Strauss, 1987, as cited in Saldana, 2013). Moreover, coding can be done in many ways, thus it is also vital to have more than one coding scheme in a piece of research (Robson, 2011).

Therefore, coding was done in different phases, ranging from initial open coding to explanatory and inferential coding, which Miles and Hubberman (1994) refer to as pattern coding. This involved the periodic rereading of transcribed data and assigning names and phrases to sections or statements that required such an assignment. For instance, responses that indicated gender leadership differences having a major impact on OCM outcome were coded as 'MJIMP', meaning major impact. Bearing in mind that some coding entails intensive coding (Eisenhardt, 1991), straightforward categories were used

in the initial coding stage of this study's analysis phase, so that the meaning of data will not be destroyed in the process of having an intensive coding scheme. In the process of this study's initial open coding, numerous codes were generated by reading through the transcripts and identifying related data without considering prior themes that were predefined from the study's theoretical framework and central research questions.

The second phase of the coding stage adopted pattern coding, which consisted of explanatory and inferential codes that summarised different segments of data and grouped the summarised segments into smaller sets of constructs, such as categories and sub-categories, as shown in Tables 13, 16 and 21. According to Miles and Hubberman (1994), pattern coding involves re-examining codes that are generated in the initial stages of coding, and recurring trends are identified and clustered into different categories. This was the platform followed by this research, where recurring significant patterns and trends were identified and clustered into categories and sub-categories. For instance, the gender leadership differences observed by the respondents were stated to have been influenced by the gender and behaviour of their followers, the personality, age and gender of the leaders, and national and sector culture having interfered with leaders' freedom or choice of management style. These were identified in the second stage of coding and were clustered into categories and sub-categories as indicated in the analysis chapters. This was to eliminate the downside of priori themes, which involve the researcher being biased, and overlooking themes and categories that might emerge from the collected data. In essence, unlike the themes that were predetermined from the extant literature prior to the field study, codes in this study were emergent codes and not priori codes, as they were created from the interview transcripts.

Furthermore, coding can be done manually or with the adoption of specialist qualitative computer aided software (Robson, 2011). Both the initial and pattern coding of this research were hand coded. The use of qualitative computer-assisted software such as NVivo and Atlas were considered for the coding and analysis of data, but were later discarded as it was realised that most qualitative aided software did not understand the implied meanings of data, according to Denscombe (2007). In addition, the reason for discarding the use of such software was to enable the researcher to become immersed in the collected data. Technology can often be an impediment to researchers becoming immersed in the data, which is a crucial aspect of the data analysis and interpretation process (Waring and Wainwright, 2008). It is worth noting that a 2012 excel spread sheet was used on the descriptive data analysis phase because it was not considered complex as the likes of Nvivo and other related software.

The primary reasons for employing initial open and pattern codes were to help retrieve and organise chunks of data in the transcript. Essentially, they helped to reduce the large amount of data (45-75 minutes per interview) into small analytical units. The adoption of initial and pattern coding was also congruent with the interview and multi-case design employed in the study for the easy analysis of the undertaken cross-case analysis. Furthermore, ideas, concepts and themes were coded and clustered to fit into the categories they belonged to. Words and phrases were assigned to data and the researcher tried to do away with symbols and numbers in order to have a smooth analysis which prevented confusion when analysing the obtained data. This was congruent with Miles and Hubberman's (1994) inference, who recommended that researchers should use words or phrases for easy and progressive analysis.

4.7.2.2 Horizontal Scans

The second stage of the data analysis involved horizontal scanning, where data from the transcripts was cross-checked for consistency, inconsistency, similarities and differences, for further clarification. This was strongly advocated by proponents of horizontal scanning, such as Kumar (2011) and Richards (2005). After the initial manual and pattern coding was done, themes and categories were cross-referenced and patterns were searched across the data through the comparison of themes and categories. At this stage, repeated patterns were clear and evident, thus categories and sub-categories were formed and clustered. For instance, the outcome and effect of introduced changes and employed strategies were clustered and formed into categories and sub-categories. This was done during the horizontal scanning of objectives or theme A, which investigated the occurred changes and the strategies or approaches employed by leaders in organisations. The next section discusses how the themes, categories and sub-categories were clustered and grouped or formed.

4.7.2.3 Clustering and Grouping

Being a qualitative research, responses were inductively content analysed and clustered under different themes labelled A-C. Themes in a qualitative study such as this sometimes come from reviewing the extant literature; arguably, richer literature produces more themes arising from the characteristics of the phenomena under study or investigation. Themes stem from already-agreed-upon professional definitions, local common-sense constructs and a researcher's values, theoretical orientation and personal experience with the subject matter (Bulmer, 1979, Strauss, 1987 and Maxwell, 1996). Hence, the themes

for this study were predetermined from the theoretical framework (a review of the extant literature) and the study's central research questions, which Robson (2011) referred to as priori themes. However, according to Robson (2011), the downside of such predetermined themes (priori themes) is that preconception can lead to data being biased, hence resulting in a researcher ignoring other significant and potential emerging themes and categories. Speaking of this research, emerging themes from a review and analysis of the respondents' transcripts were submerged into categories and sub-categories without being ignored or discarded. Essentially, three themes were predetermined from the reviewed literature, and the study's central research questions and significant trends and patterns that emerged from the inductive content and thematic template analysis were clustered into categories and sub-categories. Themes were labelled A-C as indicated in Tables 13, 16 and 21.

4.7.3 Thematic Template Analysis

This is a widely used form of qualitative research analysis in social and business research (Guest, 2012), which focuses on examining themes within data (Daly, Kellehear and Gliksman, 1997, as cited in Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). A thematic template analysis is a qualitative analysis method that is mostly used to translate qualitative information into quantitative data, if a researcher finds it useful to do so (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Boyatzis (1998) describes it as a process of encoding information that requires explicit codes that could be seen as a list of themes. Themes represent patterns that are found in information and they describe and organise observations at a minimal level and interprets certain aspects of phenomena at a maximum level. However, a thematic template analysis goes beyond counting explicit words or phrases, as it also

explores and describes both implicit and explicit ideas within the data (Guest and MacQueen, 2012).

One of its strengths is its pragmatic focus on using whatever tools might be appropriate for conducting an analytic task in a transparent, competent and ethical manner (Guest and MacQueen, 2012). Wolcott (1994) advocates its strength as its ability to clarify the obtained results and findings, while easing communication. Essentially, it allows qualitative researchers to interpret and communicate his or her observations and findings to other researchers. In addition to its benefits, Braun and Clarke (2006) highlight the key advantages of employing a thematic template analysis as:

- ❖ Its accessibility to qualitative researchers with little or no experience
- ❖ It is flexible and relatively easy and quick to learn and adopt
- ❖ Its ability to summarise key features of a large body of data
- ❖ It is easily accessible for educating the general public
- ❖ It produces qualitative data analysis, suitable for informing policy developers
- ❖ Its ability to highlight similarities across different ranges of a data set
- ❖ Its ability to generate insights and allowances for social interpretations
- ❖ It is a useful method to work within an exploratory, descriptive and participatory research paradigm

The third stage of data analysis was conducted using a template analysis, adopting the principles of an inductive thematic analysis. This was done by analysing the respondents' comments or transcripts in relation to the predefined themes and clustered categories and sub-categories. The process involved a systematic and detailed analysis of each of the

transcripts from the 40 respondents across the five cases that participated in the research. Each interviewee's transcript was analysed according to the themes, categories and sub-categories. These were generated from the study's theoretical framework, inductive content analysis, horizontal scanning and clustering. This phase of analysis was one that required a great deal of time and critical analytical thinking to successfully achieve its purpose. Notwithstanding this, its adoption helped to organise the obtained data into a systematic structure and it provided a framework that captured the richness of the obtained data (Crabtree and Miller, 1999). See below an example of a thematic template analysis that was conducted on one of the transcripts.

Table 10: Thematic Template Analysis of Respondents' Transcripts

RESPOND- ENT'S IDENTITY	LABEL	MAIN THEMES	SUB-THEMES	KEY FINDINGS/ CODE DESCRIPTORS
Jibir	Case I Background Details	Participant's and Organisation-al Background	1. Respondent's Background	Jibir was one of the male leaders who participated in the research. He is a co-ordinator and consultant at the emergency unit in Case I. He is 47 years old and has worked with the institution for over 10 years. Jibir has led a good number of staff in change processes in Case I and previous organisations.
			2. Organisational Background	Case I is from the health sector, with over 1,600 medical and non-medical staff. Case I has undergone substantial change processes and implementations, with an ineffective change management department known as the 'servicom unit' that was only known to a few members of staff, while the rest didn't know that such a department even existed. From a speculative analysis, it can be argued that perhaps there was an existing change management department but it was not properly communicated to members of staff that such a department had been created. Also, it might be that the department was not effective, to the point that staff did not see the need for it, so denied its existence.
Jibir	Theme A	Organisation-al Change Types and Strategies	1. Change Occurrences	Dramatic infrastructural and structural changes were the significant changes that were introduced into the institution, according to Jibir.
			2. Nature of Change	According to Jibir, changes introduced were absolutely planned by mixed management, comprising males and females.

			3. Employed Strategies	Jibir conveyed that a carrot and stick approach was adopted, where staff were rewarded for outstanding performance and punished for lassitude caused by the implemented changes. Also, an effective communication approach was adopted to manage the introduced changes. However, personal strategies were combined with a code of conduct provided by management, in order not to stray from organisational principles that guided change management.
			4. Outcome of employed strategies	The strategies that were employed to manage the stated changes turned out positive according to the respondents.
Jibir	Theme B	Gender Differences and Preferences	1. Gender Differences	Jibir did not observe any difference in the way that both sexes led and managed change processes in the organisation. The primary reason stated by Jibir was that most leaders led according to laid-down principles; therefore, they had no specific personal strategies that may be associated with gender leadership preferences. From a critical analysis, it can be argued that Jibir, being a male leader, may not want to disclose information that will affect his job, because leaders were expected to lead and manage change processes according to organisational principles.
			2. Gender-specific Strategies	Jibir expressed that there were no strategies attributed to gender, because the adopted strategies depended on organisational principles.
			Gender-Effective Strategies	Jibir posited that female leaders were better managers of change processes in organisations due to their innate empathic nature, which is one of the key perquisites for the successful management of organisational change.
Jibir	Theme C	Leaders' and Subordinates' Perception of	Leaders' Perception of the Impact of Gender	Irrespective of the organisational leadership constraints placed on leaders, Jibir believes that men and women do not lead and manage alike in general management practices and as such may it may be vital to consider the differences that may exist in

		the Impact of Gender Leadership Differences on OCM Outcomes	Leadership Differences on OCM Outcomes	male and female organisational change leadership scenarios in order to tailor specific strategies that will suit the nature or type of change that is being introduced.
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4.7.4 Descriptive Case or Data Analysis

Descriptive data, or case analysis, is a tool used to report the findings or outcomes of a study by organising and presenting the obtained data in a summary form (Byman and Bell, 2011). It is mostly used to quantitatively or qualitatively describe the main features or characteristics of a study (Taylor, 2005). Jaggi (2012) further describes descriptive data analysis as “numerical and graphical procedures to summarise a collection of data in a clear and understandable way”.

A descriptive data analysis provides simple summaries about the sample and observations of a study, such as the quantitative, visual or graphical chart presentation (Thompson, 2009). Robson (2011) also posits that the analysis and presentation of results can sometimes take an iterative process that requires the significant and meaningful presentation of tables, graphs and charts, etc. Thus, the employment of this technique involved a Microsoft Excel 2012 spreadsheet and the tabular presentation of findings. A descriptive case or data analysis was conducted in the fourth stage of the data analysis, which was done by manually inputting coded phrases into an Excel 2012 document and the analysis was conducted in the spreadsheet. Correspondingly, inputted phrases in the spreadsheet were described and interpreted in the analysis (Chapters 5, 6 and 7). This helped to identify and distinguish the respondents’ comments or perceptions of the impact of gender on OCM. See below for an illustration of how the 2012 spreadsheet was used to undertake a descriptive case or data analysis.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Table 11: The Study's Descriptive Case or Data Analysis

THEME A: PARTICIPANT AND ORGANISATIONAL BACKGROUND									
Respondent ID	Gender	Position	Age	Length of service	Change Leadership/Management	organisational sector	Number of employees	Change management department	Change Occurrence Status
JBR	Male	Consultant	47	10	YES	HEL-SEC	1600	YES	YES
SHIT	Male	Head Of Pharmacy	54	8	YES	HEL-SEC	1600	YES	YES
UMAMA	Female	Assistant Head Of Pharmacy	51	12	YES	HEL-SEC	1600	YES	YES
KEFAS	Female	Head Of Nursing	56	10	YES	HEL-SEC	1600	YES	YES
ALYH	Male	Consultant	30	4	YES	HEL-SEC	1600	YES	YES
WOLO	Male	Consultant	37	3	YES	HEL-SEC	1600	NOD	YES
MARGARET	Female	Nurse	35	6	YES	HEL-SEC	1600	NOD	YES
ASAM	Female	Administrative Officer	33	5	YES	HEL-SEC	1600	NOD	YES
LEONARD	Male	Relationship Manager	37	7	YES	PRIV-SEC	1500	YES	YES
JUSTIN	Male	Operation Manager	41	7	YES	PRIV-SEC	1500	NOD	YES
HAROLD	Female	Relationship Manager	37	6	YES	PRIV-SEC	1500	NOD	YES
JENNIFER	Female	Business Manager	40	7	YES	PRIV-SEC	1500	NOD	YES
DAUDA	Male	Secretary	27	4	YES	PRIV-SEC	1500	YES	YES

Furthermore, when a sample consists of more than one variable, a descriptive data analysis or technique can be used to describe the relationship between the phenomena under study (Thompson, 2009). One of the fundamental aims of adopting this technique was for the ease of the summary and presentation of the obtained findings of this study.

The study further employed a cross-case analysis of the five organisational cases. This is discussed in the next section.

4.7.5 Cross-case Analysis

The cross-case analysis or technique is a systematic and rigorous analysis method that produces unbiased and reliable findings (McGuiggan and Lee, 2008). It involves searching for patterns, similarities and differences across cases, and should at a minimum involve two cases (Miles and Hubberman, 1994 and Yin, 2009). Thus, undertaking a cross-case analysis improves validity by using a comprehensive display of data and constructing multiple comparisons and contrasts (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This method enabled the differences identified in this study to be contrasted and compared.

There are two main strategies for undertaking a cross-case analysis, although there is a third approach, which is an integration of the first two strategies, which are case-oriented and variable-oriented strategies (Miles and Hubberman, 1994). The case-oriented strategy is an analysis where one case is studied in depth or detail. Subsequent case(s) are further studied in order to try and match patterns observed in the first studied case. The second strategy is variable-oriented, the process whereby themes that ‘cut across cases’ are identified and analysed (Miles and Hubberman, 1994:175). This study adopted a variable-oriented strategy, where themes, reiterated trends and patterns across the five

cases of the study were sought and analysed. The adopted variable-oriented cross-case analysis involved comparing and contrasting findings from the five cases across the sectors. This was achieved through a cross-analysis of similarities and differences that existed in the themes across the five organisational cases. For example, the study's cross-analysis sought to know the similarities and differences in the responses provided by the participants on men's and women's approaches to organisational change scenarios. The cross-case analysis also provided a platform for a more refined description or explanation of the observed findings. Another reason for the adoption of this tool was to deepen the understanding and explanation of the area under study. The cross-case analysis also provided additional understanding and insight of the findings, which may not have been possible with just a single case and single analysis. For example, the realisation of national and sector culture constraints on leaders' choice of management style, the influence of leader's personality, age and gender on leaders' behaviour and leadership preference, as well as followers' gender and behaviour impacting on leaders' leadership behaviour and adopted managerial styles.

In addition, McGuiggan and Lee (2008) suggest that researchers employing cross-case techniques should make sense of large amounts of qualitative data from multiple sources, by ensuring that the findings from the study are objective, reliable and valid. Thus, this technique was congruent with the interview and multiple-case design for the study, which comprises five cases representing the five organisations. According to Mathison (2005), cross-case analysis is a qualitative analysis that is associated with a second level of analysis. Thus, in order to achieve triangulation, the conducted cross-case analysis was the fifth method of analysis that examined and evaluated themes, similarities and

differences across the five cases of the research. The focus of the cross-case analysis was to examine and identify how the cases relate to the study's central aims and objectives. This analysis focused on the respondents' interpretation of gender leadership differences and their perception of the impact of gender on OCM outcomes. Discussions of cross-cases were organised around the major constructs of the research, with the key focus on cross comparing findings on the current strategies employed by the change leaders, on men's and women's approaches to organisational change scenarios and the potential impact of gender leadership differences on OCM outcomes. Finally, the cross-case analysis made use of tables to illustrate the study's central themes and to highlight the similarities and differences across the five cases within the sectors. See the tables in Chapter 8 and the below illustrations of how the cross-case analysis was conducted prior to the interpretation of analysis in the cross-case analysis chapter.

Table 12: The Study's Cross-Case Analysis

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4.8 PRESENTATION OF THE CASES AND JUSTIFICATIONS FOR THE STRUCTURE OF DATA PRESENTATION

As a means of organising and presenting the cases of this study, several journals and theses were reviewed to help guide and shape how the cases and findings from the cases can be presented. The researcher and supervisory team thus considered it suitable to present or communicate the findings from the cases from each sector in three analysis chapters, in order to enhance and facilitate the cross-analysis of the five organisational cases. The first case or organisation that was analysed and presented was Case I – the Ardency Health Centre (presented in Chapter 5); followed by Case II – the Beula Nationwide Bank of Africa; Case III – the Catalita Trust Bank (presented in Chapter 6); and finally Case IV – the Ministry of Construction and Case V – the Ministry of Media Affairs (presented in Chapter 7). This was followed by a cross-case analysis that examined and evaluated the analysed themes, similarities and differences across the five organisational cases of the research in the subsequent chapter (Chapter 8).

The findings from the five organisational cases have been presented or reported in different organised chapters as a result of the commonality in their work functions. For instance, the healthcare medical organisation was the only medical related organisation where interviews were conducted, hence, it is reported on its own in chapter 5. Cases II and III are banking financial institutions and are therefore reported together in chapter 6, and Cases IV and V are federal ministries or parastatals, hence they are reported together in chapter 7. It is also worth noting that in order to avoid repetition, data from the two related organisations -- federal ministries and financial institutions – are reported and discussed together, as opposed to reporting them according to organisational cases,

because some of the themes (e.g., theme B on gender leadership differences and preferences) had similar findings.

According to Robson (2011) several parties and stakeholders are expected to be concerned with how the research findings and the actual contents have been reported and presented. Also, it was observed by the researcher that there is no consensus on a format for reporting and presenting qualitative research. The present study followed the guidelines provided by Miles and Hubberman (2002) and Silverman (2000) on how to report a qualitative-design research. The aforementioned authors, supported by Robson (2011), infer that the data chapters from real-world studies form the heart of every research because most studies' central aim is to collect data and analyse the obtained data to achieve the set objectives. Silver (2000) claims that data analysis and discussions that are inter-related and should not be treated as two separate chapters but should all be done in a given chapter. Robson (2011) suggests that a possible way of organising and presenting the collected data and associated chapters is to report and discuss the obtained findings in the order of the study's central research objectives, questions or themes and how they may be best answered, rather than in a very structured format.

The present study, being of a multiple-case design, required a separate section and chapter(s) for the different organisational cases and sectors as well as a separate chapter for the cross-case analysis, in line with Yin's (2009) suggestion. The aforementioned format is referred to by Robson (2011) as the narrative research report structure. This is depicted as a straightforward narrative account of the findings from each organisational case being reported according to the central research issues, being issue or theme-based rather than individual or organisational-case based. However, according to Robson

(2011), a summary of each organisational case needs to be presented at the end if the findings from the various multiple-cases are reported together. This led to the present study reporting the findings mainly according to the themes of the study obtained from the study's research objectives and the central questions, these being the central focus of the study. Hence, findings according to themes are reported in four different data chapters according to the sectors where each organisational case emanated from. Therefore, the adopted data presentation approach is believed to be an acceptable one and one that features in many studies (e.g., Sodha, 2006 and Taylor et al., 2016, Kvale, 1995, Syed and Murray, 2008, Patton, 1999, Kumar, 2011, Miles & Hubberman, 2002, Robson, 2011, Sobhe & Perry, 2005 and Yin, 2009).

Essentially, three themes were predetermined prior to the field study and categories and sub-categories were clustered from patterns that emerged from transcripts and an initial analysis. Overviews of the respondents and organisations' backgrounds were presented first in all five cases, followed by changes that took place in the organisation. Each of the predefined themes has been analysed and discussed in detail in the subsequent analysis (Chapters 5-7).

4.9 SUMMARY

The study comprises five cases, representing the five organisations where interviews were conducted. The primary reason for recruiting organisations from different institutions and sectors was to have a mixed, rich and in-depth understanding of the area under investigation. In addition, employing a multi-case study enabled a cross-case analysis across the organisational cases. This was to have an in-depth insight and

understanding of the main issues and findings of the research, as well as an enhanced validation of the findings.

As stated earlier, certain measures and criteria were set to recruit respondents from organisations that agreed to participate in the interviews. Therefore, interviews were conducted with forty respondents; twenty male and female senior executive managers/leaders and twenty male and female lower cadre recipients or followers across the three sectors. Essentially, the cases and respondents were strategically selected based on their experience of change management processes in organisations, but particularly their current employer. Twenty male and female leaders were recruited based on the grounds of having led change management processes in organisations. Similarly, twenty male and female lower cadre subordinates were recruited based on being the recipients of change processes in organisations, but particularly with their current employer.

The subsequent four chapters (5-8) therefore present an analysis and discussion of the findings obtained from the five cases.

5 CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF CASE I (MEDICAL HEALTH CENTRE)

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the findings and discussions of the qualitative study conducted in Case I, pen-named as the Ardency Health Centre. This is a federal medical health centre, and data were collected through semi-structured interviews. The next section proceeds with the presentation and analysis of the data obtained from this organisation.

5.2 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF CASE I

Provided in Table 13 are the themes, categories and sub-categories that emerged from the reviewed literature, this study's central aims and research questions and the findings obtained from Case 1. The same template has been used to analyse findings from the five organisational cases.

Table 13: Final List of Themes, Categories and Sub-Categories of Case I

		Sections	Sub-sections
Case I Background Details	Case I Background Details	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respondents' Background 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Position/Role
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Age
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Length of Service • Sector
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Case I Background 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Change Management Department
T/L	Themes	Categories	Sub-categories
A	Change Types and Employed Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Types of Change 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initiators of Introduced Change(s)
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employed Strategies and Approaches 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outcome of Employed Strategies
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effect of Introduced Changes
B	Gender Leadership Differences and Preferences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender Leadership Differences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Influence of National and Sector Culture on Leadership Behaviour and Preferences • Influence of Followers' Gender

			<p>and Behaviour on Leadership Behaviour and Preferences</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Influence of Leaders' Personality on Leadership Behaviour and Preferences
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender Leadership Preferences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Male-specific Preferences
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Female-specific Preferences
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender-Effective Strategies 	
C	Leaders and Followers' Perception of the Impact of Gender Leadership Differences on OCM Outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leaders' Perception of the Impact of Gender leadership differences on OCM Outcome 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Followers' Perception of the Impact of Gender leadership Gender Differences on OCM Outcome 	

5.3 CASE I BACKGROUND DETAILS

This section has two sub-sections: the sector of Case I and the existence of a change management department.

SECTOR OF CASE I – ARDENCY HEALTH CENTRE

The respondents were asked to confirm the sector of Case I, because the research entailed a cross-case and sectorial analysis of the cases where data was collected.

The respondents confirmed that Case I is in the healthcare sector. They described Case I as a tertiary and referral health institution that receives referrals from other hospitals in remote areas. Case I was described as a first-rate hospital that renders quality and affordable public health care services. Responses from the interviews indicate that Case I is one of the cheapest tertiary institutions in the region, which gives quality health services with minimal financial implications for clients.

CHANGE MANAGEMENT DEPARTMENT

The overall end goal of this study is to contribute to the successful implementation of change processes in organisations, and to in turn mitigate the reported failure rate of change management interventions and processes in organisations (Daniel, 2011, Creasey, 2012 and Sharma, 2006). In addition, researchers (Abrahamson, 2002, Creasey, 2013, Daniels, 2011, Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Sharma, 2006) have attributed the failure of OCM processes to the absence of a change management department in organisations, or to the lack of some trained specialist or personnel within the department responsible for managing the pre- and post-effects of changes. This meant that it was relevant to ask the interviewees whether the organisations had specific departments to manage the implemented changes.

The descriptive case analysis indicated that five out of eight respondents (3 males and two females) remarked that Case I has a specific office called the ‘service commission unit (Servicom)’ that oversees change processes and initiatives in the institute. However, the rest of the respondents (1 male and two females) reported that there is no specific department

that oversees or handles changes introduced into the organisation. Also, two out of the three respondents who reported Case I not having a specific change management department explained that all departmental heads managed the introduced and implemented changes in the organisation, which explained the absence of a change management department. A further critical analysis revealed that all leaders confirmed that the organisation did not have a change management department, whilst most of the followers reported that the organisation had a unit that managed change processes in the organisation, although they inferred that it was an external outsourced department or unit. It can be construed that the existence of such unit or department was not properly communicated to staff.

Hence, some of the participants' deduction of none existence of such unit or department in the organisation. Looking in retrospect at the literature, scholars and researchers of OCM (Abrahamson, 2002, Creasey, 2013, Daniels, 2011, Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Sharma, 2006) posited that changes in organisations had often met limited success, despite the predominant ideas extensively disseminated into the area. The limitation in change management success they somewhat attributed to most organisations not having specific departments and trained specialists in the area of OCM to handle and manage the introduced or implemented changes. It therefore can be surmised from the respondents' comments that perhaps Case I had an office or a team responsible for managing change processes in the organisation. However, the team, department or unit was not very effective in managing and overseeing the pre- and post-effects of the changes that were introduced into the organisation. It may be worth investigating further the effectiveness and relevance of specific organisational change management departments or units with regard to achieving desired OCM outcomes.

5.4 RESPONDENTS' BACKGROUND DETAILS

This section is an essential element of this study. In order to establish the background details of the respondents and cases where the data was collated, the first sets of questions asked were related to the respondents' and organisations' background details. Two categories are discussed under this section: the respondents' background and the organisational background.

RESPONDENTS' BACKGROUND

According to Paton and Dempster (2002), OCM has a certain number of prerequisites that must be met and complied with in order to achieve the desired outcome. The prerequisites they suggest entail skills and knowledge of the change, and the suitability and position of those leading and managing organisational change. Hence, the first section of the interview brief gathered the background details of the respondents, which comprised gender, position, age and length of service. See below a tabular presentation of the responses received from the respondents at Case I when asked about their background details. The management and participants from Case I requested not to be identified by their names in this research, therefore, the organisation was assigned the name of Ardency Health Centre and the respondents were assigned the names shown in Table 14.

Table 14: Case I (Ardency Health Centre) Participants' Background Details

Respondents' Identification	Gender	Status	Position	Age	Length of Service (Years)
Jibir	Male	Leader	Consultant-Emergency	47	10
Spiff	Male	Leader	Head of Pharmacy	54	8
Umana	Female	Leader	Assistant Head of Pharmacy	51	12
Kefas	Female	Leader	Head of Nursing	56	10
Ajayi	Male	Subordinate	Consultant	30	4
Wolo	Male	Subordinate	Consultant	37	4
Margaret	Female	Subordinate	Nurse	35	6

Assam	Female	Subordinate	Administrative Officer	33	5
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GENDER OF RESPONDENTS

The primary aim of this study was to review the current strategies adopted by change leaders to manage implemented changes, and to examine men and women's approaches to organisational change programmes and the potential impact of gender on OCM outcomes. Additionally, the research methodology/approach involved collecting data from male and female leaders/followers through the use of semi-structured interviews. Also, identifying and establishing the respondents' gender helped with the critical and speculative analysis of the obtained data in relation to the influence of gender demographics on the respondents' comments.

A total of eight respondents participated in the research conducted in Case I, comprising two male leaders, two female leaders, two male followers and two female followers. This allowed the researcher to obtain the perceptions of both leaders and followers.

POSITION/ROLE OF RESPONDENTS

The position or role of the respondents who shared or gave accounts of their change experience cannot be ignored. This helped with affirming where the respondents fitted in (leaders of organisational change or followers who have been recipients of change processes in the organisation). As shown in Table 14, leader and follower respondents were interviewed across different departments of the organisation, from managerial and lower cadre positions. Please see Table 15 for more details on the respondents' positions and a description of their roles and responsibilities.

Table 15: Description of Respondents' Roles and Responsibilities

R/ID	Respondents' Description of Roles
Jibir	Is a male consultant and co-ordinator of the emergency and paediatric unit. All emergency situations pass through Jibir and he determines the critical state of the patient.
Spiff	Is a male pharmacist and the head of the pharmaceutical unit, where they manage drug supplies from the suppliers to the organisation. Spiff and his team manage the effects of the drugs on the patients, by ensuring that the drugs do not have an adverse effect on them. However, he is also involved with the administrative aspect of the pharmaceutical unit and often engages in the clinical aspect of it. He and his unit are also involved in the research and collation of data, with a view to determining trends for drug usage. In addition, he trains medical students at undergraduate and postgraduate level on pharmaceutical practice, using scientific principles.
Umana	Is one of the female leaders and assistant Heads of Pharmacy. Umana's main roles are staff management and the supervision and guidance of staff. She is also involved in the committee that reinforces change in the organisation and monitors the introduced changes to ensure that the reasons for their introduction are successfully accomplished and retain a positive outcome.
Kefas	Is a female leader and the Head of Nursing Department and Deputy Director of Nursing Services. Her primary function is to oversee all that goes on within the nursing department.
Ajayi	Is a male medical consultant. Ajayi's major duty is to provide patients with a conducive environment in order for them confide in him about their health challenges, from where he can then offer medical services or advise in the best way he can.
Wolo	Is a male medical consultant and registrar. However, by virtue of residency training, he rotates through different specialities every 3-4 months. He runs clinics, admits, treats, evaluates, observes and administers drugs to patients. Furthermore, he is engaged in some academic activities, which involve organising workshops and seminars.
Margaret	Is a female nurse by profession. Her role as a nurse is to compliment other health personnel, such as medical doctors, pharmacists, etc.
Assam	Is an administrative officer in Case I. Her primary role as administrative staff involves filing and clerical and administrative duties.

AGE OF RESPONDENTS

According to Johnson (1990), the effectiveness of OCM may be contingent on change experience and exposure, senior management commitment and the distinct leadership styles of those who are to lead and manage change programmes. Drawing on the above, it can be argued that demographic elements such as age, position, education and length of service are likely to influence the outcome of change processes in organisations. For example, it was observed in Case I that two of the followers had a negative experience of change in policy, where employees were promoted based on qualifications and not length of service, as it used to be. Also, it was observed from some of the leaders' accounts that they applied a specific leadership style as a result of the leader's age and length of organisational managerial experience. For example, Spiff, one of the male leaders said:

Over the years through my experience with managing people under organisational transitions, especially changes that affect their workflow ... I realise that giving them that spice of liberty and autonomy has always proved to be very effective in getting the job done ... Err mm! I can clearly remember being very hard and harsh on my team far back in my younger days... Believe you me I did that trying to exercise power and not necessarily because it was required at the time.... But I have come to realise that there is not much gain in it because I ended up frustrating efforts put into getting the job done (Spiff).

Drawing on the above, the respondents are likely to discuss change experiences or accounts with a possible influence of demographic elements in terms of their age, length of service, experience and gender. Thus, it was necessary for respondents to specify their age and length of service with their current employer.

As shown in Table 14, the participants from Case I ranged from 33 to 56 years, with the youngest of the interviewees being a 33-year-old female administrative officer and the oldest a 56-year-old female head of department. The descriptive and cross-case analysis shows that Case I had an older workforce that participated in this research compared to

the other cases. Speculatively, it can be argued that the age demographic variable or factor perhaps influenced the respondents' accounts of their change experiences. The effect of this age demographic was realised from the respondents' comments on the implemented changes and their reaction towards a change in policy. The findings show that prior to the implementation of a change in policy, staff were mainly promoted based on their length of service and experience, which changed to educational qualifications as part of the changes that occurred in Case I. This was linked to the age demographic, as younger members of staff in their 30s and early 40s saw it as a necessity to go through more educational development and acquire more knowledge. Conversely, the older workforce in their late 40s and early 50s felt that it was going to be too challenging for them to go through such intense learning, as a result of ageing memory and learning capacity. This is not far removed from the stance of Preston and Shipton (2015) and the Deficit Theory, which suggests that people's learning and cognitive ability reduce as they age and that there is a significant decrease in their mental and physical performance compared to younger learners or employees.

LENGTH OF SERVICE

According to Ojode et al. (1999) and Kotur & Anbazhagan (2014), leaders tend to understand their followers better as they grow older in the job and in life in general, which can be attributed to the number of years and experience that they have had on-the-job. As such, Kotur & Anbazhagan (2014) suggest that leaders' age, experience or length of service may influence or affect leaders' leadership behaviour or pattern. The present study asked the respondents to confirm how long they had worked for Case I; the respondents' length of service or experience varied from 3 to 12 years. Dr. Wolo, a medical consultant,

had the lowest length of service (3 years), as reflected in Table 14, while Dr. Umana, the head of the pharmaceutical unit, had the longest length of service (12 years).

5.5 THEME A: CHANGE TYPES AND EMPLOYED STRATEGIES

This theme discusses and analyses the types of change that took place in Case I and the strategies or approaches employed to manage the introduced changes. As stated in Chapter 4, the recruitment of participants involved organisations and participants that had experienced recent change processes. The participants were asked to specify the recentness of the introduced changes, because this was required to determine the respondents' definition or opinion of the recent changes that had taken place. The reason for this emphasis on the recentness of the implemented changes was to enable the study to collect data on recent changes that had taken place. Respondents from Case I, specifically leaders, confirmed that the discussed changes were those that had occurred in the past 10 years.

Two categories are discussed under this theme: the type of change(s) that had taken place and the strategies and approaches employed to manage the introduced and implemented changes.

CATEGORY 1: CHANGE TYPES

Interviewees' responses on the type of changes that had occurred in Case I over the past 10 years have been analysed and interpreted and are presented below. It is worth noting that the findings reported below are not the respondents' exact words; however, the respondents' direct quotes and commentaries will be used where necessary to indicate and validate the interpretation of the participants' comments.

Dramatic infrastructural changes – These were described as intense infrastructural changes that took place within a short space of time. According to Jibir (a medical consultant), *“The institute have had dramatic infrastructural changes, where there have been lots of new buildings and projects undertaken in the institution’s premises that required relocation and movement of staff from place to place”*.

Structural changes – These were described as changes that took place in the organisational structure. These were illustrated as essential alterations to Case I’s organisational structure, which led to a new structure for the system of communication, authority, workflow and supervision. For instance, there was the appointment of new managing directors and new management teams that led different units.

Creation of new departments – These were described as the additions and creations of more departments as a result of excessive workloads for staff of the institution. In explanation, Margaret said: *“There was also creation of more departments and units due to the busy nature of the institution. Some departments and staff had too much to do with fewer staff ... Therefore, management thought it wise to create new departments to support units that had excessive workloads”*.

Administrative and policy changes – These were described as administrative changes that took place in the organisation. Also, management altered and made changes to the rules, regulations, norms and policies that guided the institution. One of the repeated policy changes was in the determinants or requirements for staff promotion or advancement. Kefas, one of the female leaders, described it as: *“There have been changes in administration and policy. This involved staff’s promotion process or criteria, where*

employees were promoted based on qualifications and not length of service as it used to be”.

The next section discusses the initiators responsible for the changes that took place in Case I.

SUB-CATEGORY 1: INITIATORS RESPONSIBLE FOR INTRODUCED CHANGES

Gender exerts an influence on work organisational structure in connection with organisational changes (Abrahamson, 2002). According to Ely and Meyerson (2000), an understanding of gender in organisations begins with the conception that organisations are innately gendered as a result of being created by and for men. Essentially, progress towards equity has been slow, partial and superficial. Women have not been given significant support to lead and make an impact in organisations as a result of yet-unanswered gender imbalance questions (Eagley, 1987, Linstead et al., 2005 and Tyler, 2000). Also, Parson and Priola (2013) in the reviewed literature advocate the need for organisations and society to integrate the skills and talents of both sexes into a cohesive corporate culture, considering the irregularity of top management team composition. This led to asking participants to confirm the composition of the managerial team that initiated and drove the implemented changes.

The thematic and descriptive analysis revealed that three out of eight respondents, predominantly leaders, acknowledged that the department/hospital management was responsible for the initiation of implemented changes and that the committee involved had a balanced composition of male and female executives who initiated and drove the

changes. Jibir said: *“Departmental/hospital management initiated the introduced changes”*.

On the other hand, five of eight respondents, predominantly leaders, believed that the managerial team or committee responsible for initiating the introduced changes had more males than females. In summary, it can be surmised that there may have been a gender imbalance in the responsible leaders and initiators of the changes introduced into Case I. However, the reported gender imbalance may have occurred as a result of the nature of the sector of Case I. Umana (see post, roles and responsibilities of Umana in Table 15) stated that:

This is a federal government institute and every necessary change is determined and set by the government which undoubtedly comprises more males and less females as result of the kind of work we do (Umana).

Speculatively, and especially in Africa, the above findings may have occurred as a result of the nature or sector of the organisation, as the workforce is predominantly dominated by males by virtue of their roles and responsibilities. The findings above are not far removed from the stance of Skirstad (2009) and Mullany (2007), who argued that gender equality in organisations is yet to attain success, in spite of the considerable development in the area. Looking in retrospect at the reviewed literature, gender scholars (Gherardi and Poggio, 2007, Meyerson and Kolb, 2000 and Meyerson and Tompkins, 2007) attributed managerial gender imbalance to the possible influence of the nature of the sector and industry behind the organisations, in terms of having some gender tokens or minorities. However, women tend to be the victims of such minorities by being the gender tokens, as discussed in the reviewed literature. These influences may be almost impossible to address as there are certain jobs (e.g., construction and aeronautic

engineering) that still have more males than females, even though women at the present time are excelling in such challenging and the masculine-defined jobs. However, this is by no means an excuse to promote male or masculine hegemony. Organisational routines and managerial structures can be built in a way that accommodates and combines masculine and feminine traits irrespective of the sector, job or industry, which may involve strategic thinking and communication skills, (Syed and Murray, 2008). This is because both masculine and feminine values bring a wealth of benefits to organisations, and such mixed managerial teams may have remarkable things to learn from working together as a combined synergetic team (Powell, 1988).

CATEGORY 2: EMPLOYED STRATEGIES

The failure of OCM processes can be attributed to inappropriate strategies being adopted to manage organisational change processes. Part of the overall aim of this research is to contribute to the successful implementation of change processes in organisations, with an objective of reviewing the current trends, strategies and approaches adopted by change leaders to manage organisational change. Therefore, presented in this category is an interpretation and discussion of the findings from Case I in relation to the adopted strategies or approaches to managing the changes that occurred in the organisation. Male and female leaders were asked to convey and describe the strategies and approaches they employed to manage and lead the changes. Also, in order to validate or affirm the strategies mentioned by the leaders, male and female followers were asked to convey and describe the strategies or approaches employed by the leaders to manage the changes. The discussed and mentioned leadership strategies or approaches are interpretations of the respondents' comments and not their exact words.

The Carrot and Stick Approach – This is an approach where some of the leaders rewarded outstanding performance and punished lassitude or underperformance as a result of the changes introduced into the organisation. This was mainly mentioned by male leaders and was not acknowledged by any of the followers. Correspondingly, Rosener's (1990 and 1997) research on male and female managerial and leadership differences showed that male managers espoused a transactional leadership style, which entailed the use of exchange principles, such as reward and punishment tactics for work done efficiently or poorly respectively. Such a style was observed as the 'carrot and stick approach' from the interviews conducted in this study.

Counselling and Education Approach – Both leaders and followers affirmed that, throughout the course of the change process, the leaders ensured that they constantly counselled the change recipients through one-to-one meetings. The leaders further adopted the first step of Kotter's (1996) 8-step process to change implementation, by educating the change recipients of the need and urgency of the introduced change. The respondents affirmed that this approach was adopted before and after the change was implemented. This strategy or approach was mostly mentioned by followers who applauded leaders and management for making considerable an effort to counsel and educate members of staff who were grossly affected by the implemented changes. According to Wolo, one of the subordinate respondents: *"Management provided constant counsel and education of the changes introduced, and ensured that we understood the basic parameters of the introduced changes"*.

On-the-job Training Approach – The adoption of this approach involved management or leaders providing adequate training on the changes that occurred. This was particularly

used for the introduction of the changes that involved software operation. For instance, an automated payment platform replaced a manual payment system. Hence, management and leaders provided adequate training on the usage of the automated payment system. The on-the-job training approach was mentioned by a good number of subordinates as an approach that significantly helped with mitigating the adverse effect of introduced changes. Kefas, one of the female leaders, expressed the strategies she employed as: *“I employed on-the-job training, ensuring that staff do what they should do at the right time and do understand the protocol of what they have been asked to do. I also ensure they adhere to the policies and make necessary documents and reports”*.

Effective Communication and Briefing – This was also mentioned as an approach adopted by some of the leaders as a means of managing the changes prior to the introduction and after the implementation of the changes. This approach involved informing and briefing the change recipients through face-to-face meetings and intranets with recent developments and further actions that might be taken to successfully drive and maintain the implemented changes. According to Spiff, one of the male leaders: *“I constantly inform them of the benefits of the changes, sometimes one-on-one and with general emails. I also inform them of their roles in the whole change process, roles that will give them satisfaction”*.

Kotter and Schlesinger, (1979), as cited in Dean (2012), proposed communication as one of the key approaches to managing change opposition or resistance from the affected employees. Communication should not be a one-off exercise but should be regular and consistent, and should be pursued through various channels rather than one, such as newsletters and team briefings (Burnes, 2004 and Okafor, 2009).

Organisational Laid-down Rules – This involved organisational laid-down strategies that leaders were mandated to use for the managing of changes. Hence, leaders combined personal strategies with a code of conduct provided by the federal government. As posited by Jibir: *“I downgrade superior and subordinate existence and replace with bottom to top approach. More so, I don’t stray away from the code of conduct provided by the civil service”*.

Consequently, two sub-categories – the outcome or effect of the introduced changes and the employed strategies – emerged from the early stages of the analysis based on the critical incidents mentioned by the respondents. Thus, they are discussed below.

SUB-CATEGORIES 1&2: OUTCOME OF THE INTRODUCED CHANGES AND EMPLOYED STRATEGIES

Drawing on the employees’ potential reactions to organisational change processes discussed in Chapter 3, it was pertinent to explore how employees in less-developed countries such as Nigeria possibly reacted to change processes or implementations in organisations, and the underlying factors to their responses. Therefore, the participants were asked to discuss the employees’ reactions that were observed in the course of the changes that occurred in the organisation. The inductive content and descriptive analysis revealed two significant repeated patterns in the early stages of analysis, and thus were analysed and interpreted as a positive and mixed reaction or outcome.

In explanation, 6 out of eight respondents indicated that most of the adopted strategies had a positive outcome and were effective as a result of the strict approaches that were adopted to manage the changes. Most of the followers related that the outcome of the changes and the strategies employed were fantastic and successful, so much that they

could not recall any adverse effect of the implemented changes. They further stated that there were massive steps up in terms of professionalism and the ability to respond faster and more effectively as a result of the changes. The respondents acknowledged that the changes were a huge upgrade to the organisation, and that those who led the changes and the strategies they adopted were very helpful.

The changes I personally experienced and the management of the changes were fantastic ... In fact, most of the changes I encountered were in the positive light, in the sense that the leadership of the institute harkened unto our cry of excessive workload ... The workload was almost driving us crazy and management created an additional consultancy unit that relieved us of the workload. This was a huge upgrade and support; as such we cannot complain but are rather grateful for it (Wolo).

On the other hand, 2 out of eight respondents remarked that the introduced changes and adopted strategies still met with a mixed reaction and outcome. The said respondents repeatedly spoke about some recipients being confronted with disagreeable new policies that changed the nature of their position in the institute. For example, Umana, one of the female leaders, mentioned that:

Another notable change that met resistance was the issue of policy change in promotion of staff, where staff were promoted based on qualifications and not length of service as it used to be. Those affected by the change were very displeased with the change, thereby they opposed it (Umana)

The leaders expressed that when an alteration of the policy regarding staff promotion met resistance, an autocratic style of leadership was frequently applied to mitigate the opposition from members of staff who were affected by the policy change. Notwithstanding this, the overall analysis indicated that the majority of the leaders and recipients were satisfied with the strategies adopted to manage the changes. This was as a result of the effective approaches to manage the changes, according to the respondents. With reference to the reviewed literature, Idiagbon-Oke and Oke (2011) posit that

employees are likely to be more receptive to change programmes when there is an effective management of the organisational change. If there is good communication, and the organisation's workforce is well managed and trained on new methods of work operations, employees are more likely to welcome and accept changes (Okafor, 2007).

5.6 THEME B: GENDER LEADERSHIP DIFFERENCES AND PREFERENCES

According to Adichie (2013), there are remarkable differences in the ways that male and female leaders lead and manage organisational processes and programmes. Similarly, Syed and Murray (2008) argued that there are evident gender leadership differences in the ways that men and women manage organisational processes such as organisational change programmes. The sources of these differences still exist in the workplace and must be clearly understood if the desired outcome is to be achieved. Syed and Murray (2008) further infer that men and women generally have different communication and management strategies that also reflect their behavioural patterns, and as such these must be clearly understood.

This theme emerged from the second objective (establishing and examining differences and preferences in the ways that men and women manage organisational change). Consequently, the present study embarked on investigating the distinct leadership styles of both sexes, from the point of view of leaders and followers who have led and been recipients of change programmes in organisations.

The descriptive case and inductive content analysis revealed divergent findings from the reviewed literature. Consequently, three categories are discussed under this theme: gender

leadership differences in leading and managing organisational change, gender leadership preferences and gender-effective strategies.

CATEGORY 1: GENDER LEADERSHIP DIFFERENCES

There are differences in the leadership and management style of both sexes (Eagley, 1987). Therefore, the present study investigated whether, in reality, differences exist in the way that males and females lead and manage organisational change processes in Nigeria.

The inductive content and descriptive data analysis from Case 1 revealed divergent findings on male and female leadership differences in OCM. In detail, four out of eight respondents (1 female and two male leaders, and one male follower) expressed that they did not observe differences in male and female organisational change leadership styles. The stated respondents explained that leaders led and managed the introduced changes according to organisational procedures set by management to manage organisational change processes. According to one of the male leaders:

Having being managed by both sexes and equally managed employees, I have never outrightly seen differences in how men lead from women ... More so, I have managed employees under certain organisational processes alongside female colleagues and I have not noticed leadership differences in our management pattern or style. However, we have always had policies in the institution's handbook that clearly tell us how to go about managing processes such as transitional organisational developments

On the other hand, 4 out of eight respondents (1 female leader, and one male and two female subordinates) remarked that, in their present place of work, they observed significant differences in the way that each sex led and managed changes in organisations. They suggested that these observed differences should not be overlooked, because the different styles espoused by both sexes might be driving forces behind the success of

changes introduced into organisations. In addition to those who reported that they observed differences, two indicated that the identified differences may not be significant to the point of being considered as major determinants of the success of OCM. Wolo, one of the subordinates, expressed his stance as:

Yes, there are visible differences in how men lead change processes from the opposite sex But I don't think the stated difference is that imperative to be considered as a success factor of a change initiative in organisations. This is because every organisation will have abiding policies that will instruct leaders of how to manage sensitive situations, such as managing change (Wolo).

From a critical perspective, it can be speculated that male and female leaders have led without realising that they managed the changes with elements of psychological characteristics or emotional empathy, which can be described as the leader's behaviour being influenced by the gender and behaviour of their followers drawing on the recipients' comments. This is because the descriptive case and data analysis revealed that three out of four leaders remarked that they did not observe gender differences in their leadership style, whilst three out of four followers expressed that they observed gender differences in leaders' OCM styles.

Furthermore, there were other significant observed trends that emerged in the participants' comments. The respondents who observed gender leadership differences spoke about the observed gender differences as a result of a leader's personality. This was consistent with the reviewed literature along the lines of (Eagley, 1987) and the research carried out by the Innis Company (2009), who argued that there are visible differences in the way both sexes lead and manage. However, differences in leadership and management styles in female and male managers boil down to personality and the individual in

question. Four out of eight respondents stated that they did not observe any differences, and they attributed the absence of gender differences to organisational laid-down rules that dictated managers' leadership behaviour and style. The inductive content and thematic analysis showed that most leaders could not adopt a specific preferred style, because they had to adhere to organisational set principles or rules. For instance, Ajayi, one of the male subordinates, commented:

I have not observed any difference. We work based on laid-down principles, anything short of that is not acceptable. Irrespective of gender, they all managed us strictly on laid-down principles and guidelines and that sort of streamlined leader's activities and management style (Ajayi).

The above comment brings to mind the various factors that might interfere with leaders' or managers' choices of leadership behaviour or patterns. Schneider and Littrell (2003) attributed this choice to the influence of the national or sector culture of the specific organisation. Furthermore, Kuada (2010) deduced that organisational leadership behaviours and styles are culture-bound because corporate culture provides a frame of reference and guidance on organisational expected behaviours, which the participants reported for Case I. Essentially, within the African and specifically Nigerian context, certain factors, such as the influence of national or sector culture, affects leaders' and managers' leadership style. According to Den-Hartog et al. (1999), culture to a great extent defines gender roles in Africa, where biological sex is not the only determining factor that defines one being a male or female. In essence, societal values and expectations tend to perpetuate gender role stereotypes that mandate males to be masculine and females to be feminine (Kilianski, 2000). However, the said stereotype often varies among different cultures as well as ethnic groups (Franklin, 1984, Landrine, 1985, Harris, 1994). Therefore, it can be speculated that irrespective of leaders' preferred leadership behaviour

or pattern, they are expected to lead according to the expected behavioural pattern of the organisation, sector or nation. This raises concerns over the expected leadership behaviour and the actual situation on the ground. According to the participants (predominantly the leaders), there were strict organisational policies on how to manage the implemented change processes. Similarly, from the recipients' point of view, an employee's behaviour, judgement and perception of the workplace may also be affected by the national culture of that employee (Nazarian and Atkinson, 2013). For example, an employee from a developing country may incline towards compliant acceptance of change due to cultural values of not disobeying or disrespecting boss's orders and job security issues.

In addition, the results further showed that leaders' leadership behaviour and adopted managerial style was influenced by the sex/gender and behaviour of their followers or subordinates. This is not far removed from the stance of Yi-Huang et al. (2011), who infer that it is possible that leaders' behaviour is influenced by their subordinates' behaviour and gender. According to Luthans (1992 cited in Yi-Huang et al., 2011:5-6), leaders and their followers often have a negotiable and interactive relationship and are consciously aware that they can influence each other's behaviour. This perhaps can also be classified as psychological characteristics or elements of emotional empathy, playing a role in how changes are approached and managed in organisations. The next section discusses this in more detail.

SUB-CATEGORY 1: THE INFLUENCE OF NATIONAL/SECTOR CULTURE AND FOLLOWERS' GENDER AND BEHAVIOUR ON LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND PREFERENCES

The prevailing gender disparity in organisations illustrates gender as individual characteristics that stem from one's biological category as male or female (Ely and Meyerson, 2000). Consequently, there are sex-role socialisations (social differences) that account for the inequality between men and women, thus rendering women less skilled than men in the workplace (Ely and Meyerson, 2000).

Berry et al. (1992) argue that there may be universality of gender stereotypes across different cultures as a result of the varying psychological characteristics of males and females, which often result from the gender division of labour in some societies and organisations. According to Williams and Best (1990 and 1994) and Williams et al. (1999), gender stereotypes are the psychological characteristics assumed to be differentially associated with women and men in a particular cultural group. This was linked to the concept of Pan-cultural gender stereotypes, which refers to the psychological characteristics often associated with men and women across many cultural groups. For instance, women are often understood to be more emotional and nurturing than men and as such are seen as emotional managers of organisational change programmes, while men are understood to be more independent and aggressive than women and as such are viewed as primary and effective managers of change processes.

This was evidenced in the present study, when two out of eight respondents (1 male leader and one male subordinate) emphasised psychological or emotional empathy characteristics as one of the factors that contributed to the differences in both sexes when leading and managing change in organisations. The respondents explained it as an

activeness of the innate psychological nature in both sexes, where each sex subconsciously acknowledged their innate psychological attributes. They further cited instances of how biological nature makes women weaker vessels compared to men; this they particularly linked to women's reproductive systems of child birth and menstruation. The respondents indicated that the reproductive system might indirectly contribute to female leaders adopting feminine approaches and the male leaders adopting masculine approaches, as established in the literature (Tyler, 2005 and Ely and Meyerson, 2000). Below is an excerpt of the transcript from one of the male leaders when asked about men and women's approach to organisational change scenarios.

My answer is a big yes. There is the biological end of it (women menstruate and give birth), that tends to bring down the productivity of women. They may not be physically strong to function as they used to because of these biological factors... One will have to factor these into consideration. (Jibir)

The biological aspect of the gender differences, some scholars (Berry et al., 1992, Williams & Best, 1990, 1994 and Williams et al., 1999) described as male and female psychological characteristics and emotional empathy, often associated with the societal and organisational gender division of labour. Specifically, some of the respondents supported psychological characteristics being a measure that portrayed male leaders as more transformational, in place of female leaders, as reported in the reviewed literature (Hinkin and Tracey, 1999 and Moran, 1992). This was construed to have made the male leaders more lenient with their female followers, by applying softer approaches in managing and leading change scenarios. For example, Spiff, one of the male leaders, mentioned that female subordinates' soft and tender nature always made him apply lenient measures when leading and managing them, compared to how he managed male subordinates. It can be construed from these findings that leadership behaviour and

preferences may be influenced by the gender and behaviour of the followers. With regard to the reviewed literature, Kotur and Anbazhagan (2014) and Huang et al., (2011) suggest that in the midst of differences that may exist in men's and women's leadership style, the nature and behaviour of followers can also influence leaders' choice of leadership preferences and behaviour. This is similar to the stance of Schimmoeller (2010), who argues that the survival of an organisation sometimes depends on the leader's responsiveness and ability to adopt an appropriate leadership style that suits the nature of the task and the emotions of their followers.

CATEGORY 2: GENDER LEADERSHIP PREFERENCES

The management and leadership styles adopted by both sexes play a vital role in the successful management of change and any further opposition that may be encountered (Maurer, 2009). In order to facilitate the success of organisational change processes and interventions in organisations, Paton and Dempster (2002) accentuate that the most appropriate leadership style and behaviour of change management has to be identified and adopted. There was therefore the need to investigate male and female preferences in OCM. Along the lines of Paton and Dempster (2002), some of the respondents (four out of eight) expressed that every leader, be they male or female, has a preferred style. Hence, both sexes should be given an equal opportunity to apply the style that works best for them, considering the fact that different stages of the change processes require different strategies (Senior and Fleming, 2006).

There are two sub-categories discussed under this category: male-specific leadership preferences and female-specific leadership preferences. The discussed leadership styles and preferences are interpretations of the respondents' comments on leadership styles,

and not their exact words. However, the participants' direct quotes and commentaries will be provided where required to illustrate the researcher's interpretation of the analysis.

SUB-CATEGORY 1: MALE-SPECIFIC LEADERSHIP PREFERENCES

Respondents who asserted that they observed differences in the way in which both sexes led and managed change processes were asked to describe the styles or strategies that they observed male leaders adopt. The thematic and descriptive data analysis revealed that male leaders mostly adopted soft leadership styles, interpreted as a democratic leadership style and the 'carrot and stick' exchange approaches. This was mentioned by four out of eight respondents (1 female leader, 1 male subordinate and two female subordinates). For instance, Margaret, one of the female subordinates, said:

There is no leadership style attributed to a particular sex. However, over time I have seen female leaders being strict and command-oriented in their leadership approaches when compared to male leaders. Contrary to the women leaders, men are softer and employee oriented, whereby they consult and involve their subjects in whatever they do...

The findings above are consistent with Statham's (1987) position of men's exhibition of transformational traits of leadership, compared to female leaders. However, the above result in contrast to Rigg and Sparrow's (1994) suggestion of male leaders being considered more paternalistic and authoritarian than their female counterparts. Rigg and Sparrow's (1994) inference is also similar to Tyler's (2005) stance of male leaders' predominant possession of masculine approaches, such as a transactional or autocratic leadership style. Drawing on findings from the previous category, which attributed the observed gender differences to psychological characteristics or emotional empathy, it can be speculated that male leaders subconsciously adopted democratic approaches as a result of psychology-based gender leadership differences. This was evidenced in Spiff's

response (one of the male leaders), when he stated that female subordinates' soft and tender nature influenced the lenient and consultative approaches taken in the management of female subordinates when compared to that of male subordinates. Notwithstanding, the rest of the participants indicated that they did not observe or notice differences in both sexes' leadership, because leaders led based on their personality, organisational laid-down principles, and national and sector culture. One of the female leaders stated:

No! I have not observed any specific difference. When it comes to managing complicated organisation issues in this institution, we were inducted to always refer back to the policies and guidelines provided by the federal government to manage organisational processes.... I sometimes wonder why we are not given the freedom to use of our own initiatives and judgements to manage organisational transitional programmes... But I am guessing there should be a valid reason for it and this does remind me to make it a point of duty to investigate why we have to lead and manage such processes according to how they want us to manage it and not our preferred way....

The above commentary is consistent with the thoughts of Nazarian and Atkinson (2013), who argue that leaders' leadership preferences or styles are often influenced by the corporate and national culture of their respective countries and companies and are not entirely their choice of preferred leadership style. Essentially, leaders may not have adopted their preferred style of leading due to the bureaucracy and centralisation of management.

SUB-CATEGORY 2: FEMALE-SPECIFIC PREFERENCES

Speaking of female-specific preferences, most of the female leaders were acknowledged to have predominantly adopted hard and transactional approaches in their change management leadership style, as mentioned by four out of eight participants (1 female leader, 1 male subordinate and two female subordinates). For instance, Margaret said,

over time, I have seen female leaders being very strict and command-oriented in their leadership approaches when compared to male leaders...

This was contrary to the established literature. For example, Hinkin and Tracey (1999) identified women as transformational leaders who were more in tune with participative, empowering and visualising strategies, rather than hard and transactional approaches, as mentioned by the respondents. However, this does not negate the fact that other key authors, such as Statham (1987), also attributed masculine approaches to female leaders, although most leaders do not possess a single style of leadership, but a combination of different styles (Reardon et al., 1998). This was further supported by Marshall (1995), who premised that women felt that in order to succeed as change agents, they have to change their management styles and adopt masculine approaches, so that both themselves and their changes are accepted. The male-dominated approaches that most female leaders adopted were described as directive and aggressive. This Stewart (1996) referred to as the Thatcher approach to managing change. This was intended to facilitate the implementation of desired change initiatives and to have their approaches accepted. Furthermore, Erasmus' (1998) research reports that female leaders were perceived as not having the required leadership potential, as their leadership behaviour differs from the traditional male leaders' behaviour. Drawing on the above, it could be speculated that women would do everything within their power to prove their worth and effectiveness, and perhaps they feel that this could be better achieved by being aggressive and authoritative.

CATEGORY 3: GENDER-EFFECTIVE STRATEGIES

Daniels (2011) indicated a lack of identifying the most suitable strategy as one of the major impediments to obtaining success in OCM. A number of key authors (Abrahamson, 2002, Ely and Meyerson 2000, Linstead et al., 2005, Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Tyler, 2005) saw certain areas of change management as being gender biased, where women were ascribed the roles of secondary, affective and emotional leaders of changes, while men were ascribed the roles of primary and effective managers of change. Consequently, this category was predetermined from the review of the literature and was further investigated through the interviews, by asking the respondents to share their perceptions of which gender's strategy or approach was most effective and successful.

The result shows that most of the strategies ascribed to male leaders were not seen as best suited for managing changes that took place in the organisation. On the contrary, a greater number (six out of eight respondents; three leaders, particularly females and three subordinates, particularly females) described the approaches or strategies adopted by female leaders as being best suited for the effective and successful management of changes in the organisation. The respondents attributed the effectiveness of the female adopted strategies to the empathic and stringent measures applied by female leaders.

According to Assam, one of the female subordinates:

I have worked in this organisation for a while, under different departmental heads that have been led and managed by both men and women.... and they have always had varying outputs and outcomes. Based on my experiences in this organisation and outside, I think it may be best to use female leaders as they tend to have always had positive remarks and credits on managing through trying times.... I really cannot clearly say why they always get better outcomes but I could link it to the strict measures, where they never joke with us getting the job done. For example, when management decided that people could no longer get promoted due to the number of years they have spent in the institution. It was initially introduced some years back when we had a

male head of department but it never went through because people were not happy about it.... However, that policy has been enforced and it is working effectively under the leadership of the present head of department who is a female.

In correspondence with the reviewed literature, female managers were stated to be better equipped for managing the proposed changes in organisations. Paton and Dempster (2002) attributed this to women's participative and empathic leadership behaviour and patterns. Rosener (1990) and Oerton (1996) further argued that a feminine model of leadership is likely to be more appropriate and most effective in the event of a socio-economic downturn, than the command-and-control leadership styles espoused by most male managers. Interestingly, in contrast to the premise of Rosener (1990) and Oerton (1996), the command-oriented styles were the ones indicated by the respondents of the present study as being predominantly employed by the female leaders in the organisations. However, from a critical perspective, it can be surmised that a gross gender imbalance in African organisations may have resulted in the respondents (especially female leaders and subordinates promoting female leaders and their strategies) stating that women were best suited for the successful management of organisational change. They could have seen this as a means of eradicating the gender imbalance in organisations and women being the victims of gender token. According to McDonald et al. (2004), it is mostly women who are affected by the negative outcomes of gender tokens and are, therefore, often considered as token females.

Some of the respondents further commented that the effectiveness of the strategies also depends on the type of change that is being introduced. Umana, one of the female leaders, said:

Female leaders I will admit are more effective. This is because they are not too strict but very democratic. They set up a committee to discuss and get their own ideas and the pros and cons before applying any approach. Therefore, I would say that the female counterpart's approaches will be more effective in managing most change processes in organisations. However, the effectiveness of the strategies also depends on the kind of change.

This was also established in the review of the literature, when Senior and Fleming (2006) asserted that transformational leadership was best applied when managing transformational or frame-breaking change. On the other hand, the rest of the respondents (two out of eight) described both sexes' strategies as being effective and successful, because leaders led and managed based on organisational laid-down rules.

5.7 THEME C: LEADERS' AND FOLLOWERS' PERCEPTION OF THE IMPACT OF GENDER ON OCM

Dealing with change is one of the rudiments of successfully managing an organisation (Dean, 2012), therefore evaluating and ascertaining the impact that gender might play on the management of changes in organisations is this study's third objective. For the achievement of the third objective, male and female leaders and subordinates were asked to share their perceptions of the impact that gender might have on OCM. As indicated in the extant literature, failure to consider the impact of gender on OCM could be one of the contributing factors to the reported limited success of OCM (Creasey, 2012, Daniels, 2011, Sharma, 2006 and Maurer, 2009).

Two categories are discussed under this theme: leaders' and subordinates' perceptions of the impact of gender on OCM.

CATEGORY 1: LEADERS' PERCEPTION OF GENDER IMPACT ON OCM

Both male and female leaders came up with varying responses when asked if gender has an impact and should be considered in the design of OCM strategies and approaches. In order to have a deeper understanding of the participants' perceptions, the collected data was analysed and categorised into leaders' perceptions of the impact of gender on OCM.

The inductive content, thematic and descriptive data analysis revealed three significant repeated trends or findings in the early stages of analysing this theme. The respondents described and classified gender as having a major and minute impact. Three out of four leaders (one male and two female), affirmed that gender has an impact on the management of organisational change and described the impact as major and moderate. They therefore thought that it should be strongly considered. Some of the leaders explained that the distinct leadership styles of male and female leaders meant that gender had a strong or major impact on OCM. For instance, one of the male leaders expressed the following view:

I strongly believe that gender has a significant influence on organisational change programmes. This is due to the differences I have noticed in men and women's leadership style. A distinct example I can think about is negotiation pattern of male and female managers... I have noticed as a male leader that women have done better jobs in negotiating things with the affected employees on changes that met some stern opposition, such as change in policy that negatively affected some members of staff. I think female leaders are more likely to convince the workforce to see the need for the proposed change and what they stand to benefit from it. Hence gender should be generously considered. In turbulent change situations, my piece of advice to managers of change is to always use female managers during such change situations (Kefas).

The finding above is congruent with the extant literature that revealed gender as having a significant impact on OCM and career progression (Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Eagley and Johnson, 1990). It can be speculated that the reason for the above finding was

the participants' observed male and female OCM leadership differences. In addition, the leaders' comments on both sexes' organisational change negotiation patterns is not far removed from Haselhuhn's et al. (2014) research on gender and negotiation. It found gender differences in men's and women's bargaining and negotiation patterns, which are part of the essential skills required for an effective management of change programmes in organisations. Claes (1991) advocates that unless organisations and societies expand their thinking patterns and systems to include women's and men's unique potential in all managerial spheres, organisations will remain impoverished in the management of gender diversity. Furthermore, one of the male leaders described the impact of gender on OCM as being minute, because gender leadership differences are relative to the personality of the leader and not the gender of the leaders. One of the leaders remarked that:

Yes, gender can be considered, however it should be a minute one.... Because I feel every style of leadership is relatively a thing of personality and not gender. It has been discovered lately that in the presence of pressure, female leaders tend to be more problematic and provocative, while the male counterparts tend to manage such issues better (Spiff).

CATEGORY 2: FOLLOWERS' PERCEPTION OF GENDER IMPACT ON OCM

Speaking of the subordinates' perception of the impact of gender on OCM, the descriptive data analysis showed that all of the subordinate respondents reported that gender had a major and strong impact on OCM. For instance, Ajayi, one of the male subordinates, said:

In my opinion, gender does have a major impact on OCM and should be considered, because every leader that has led me tends to be unique... I also believed that no individual leads alike, they all have always had their unique way of leading and managing, especially when it comes to sensitive change situations.

The above finding indicates that there may be some differences in the way that men and women manage organisational change programmes, and that this may have some potential impacts on how changes are managed and their expected outcome. Hence, it may be worth considering some gender-specific methodologies in the design of OCM strategies or approaches, according to some of the respondents from Case I. The findings infer that the gendered aspect of OCM should not be overlooked, because the desired outcome of changes introduced into organisations may be strongly dependent on a particular sex's strategy or approach. This is also consistent with the thoughts of OCM scholars (e.g., Linstead et al., 2005, Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Reardon, et al., 1998) who also advocate OCM being approached from a more gender-inclusive perspective.

5.8 SUMMARY OF CASE I KEY FINDINGS

Yes, gender has a major and significant link with the management of changes in organisations. Every leader, be it male or female, has a preferred style that he or she works best at. Therefore, both sexes should be given equal opportunity to apply what they are most effective at.... Let's consider the fact that different stages of change processes require different strategies.....Such an understanding, I believe, is an enabler of gender playing a major and significant role on the outcome of organisational change initiatives (Assam, Case I- Female Subordinate 2).

Case I has undergone quite a number of changes, such as infrastructural, structural, administrative, the creation of new departments and a change in policy. As highlighted by all the participants, the introduced changes were pre-planned in nature and were effectively communicated to the workforce prior to their implementation. They further indicated that the introduced changes were set and determined by federal government, which comprises more males than females, due to the nature of the sector or work involved. This highlights the extent to which leaders' leadership behaviour and pattern

can significantly influenced by national and sector culture as argued by Kuada (2010) in the reviewed literature. Hence, most of the participants considered the team or body responsible for initiating and driving introduced changes as gender imbalanced. In retrospect, the stated findings were established in the reviewed literature, when Skirstad (2009) and Mullany (2007) posited that the struggle for gender equality has not yet been completely won, despite the implementation of standards to promote the equal participation of both sexes. This suggests that, in spite of the considerable development in gender equality, a good number of women are still turned down by executive boards and are not involved in senior managerial positions and practices.

Furthermore, the majority of the respondents' comments reflected the fact that the introduced changes and adopted strategies had been successful, with a positive outcome. However, a few of them further mentioned that some of the introduced changes and adopted strategies still met with a mixed reaction and stern resistance from the members of staff who were affected by the changes. An example that was repeatedly cited by the respondents was the alteration in the staff promotion policy, whereby some senior executives were faced with demotions at work as a result of not meeting the educational qualification requirements.

There are some significant differences in male and female leadership (Adchie, 2013 and Eagley, 1987). This was mentioned and supported by 50 per cent of the respondents, who stated that they had observed preferences and differences in the way that men and women led and managed change processes in organisations. Quite a number of divergent findings contrary to the reviewed literature surfaced from the participants' comments. For instance, Hinkin and Tracey (1999) described women as transformational leaders who

were more in tune with participative, empowering and inspirational strategies, and men as transactional leaders more in tune with command and task-oriented strategies. Contrary to the above, the inductive content and descriptive data analysis revealed that most of the female leaders tend to espouse the transactional styles attributed to men in the extant literature. For example, one of the female leaders commented that the way that some male leaders handle change processes is too soft, so it is not successful. On the other hand, female leaders led to prove that they could do better by applying stringent and stern measures in order to bring about the success of organisational change processes. Similarly, Marshall (1995) premised that women felt that, in order to succeed as change agents, they needed to change their management styles and adopt more male- oriented styles to have both themselves and their changes accepted. In addition, this may be better understood from the Erasmus (1998) research, which reported female leaders as not having the required leadership potentials, and therefore they needed to be more aggressive and stern in their leadership pattern in order to be appropriately valued and accepted as effective leaders.

Broadly speaking, 50 per cent of the respondents acknowledged that they did not observe gender differences due to organisational set principles for managing changes. This was construed as being due to the influence of corporate, national and sector culture on leaders' behaviour and preferred leadership style. Conversely, the other 50 per cent of the respondents acknowledged that they observed significant differences in the way both sexes led and managed change process in the organisation due to the gender differences in men and women. They suggested that the observed differences should not be overlooked, because the different leadership styles adopted by both sexes might be

driving forces behind the success of changes introduced into organisations. However, the respondents further stated that the identified differences may not be significant to the point of being considered as a major determining success factor of OCM. This is because there were laid-down rules to manage changes. The respondents further spoke about the observed or absence of gender differences as a result of a leader's personality and psychological or emotional empathy characteristics. They also believed that the followers' behaviour had an influence on leaders' behaviour and adopted leadership styles.

The extant literature infers that female managers may be better equipped for managing proposed changes in organisations (Paton and Dempster, 2002). This was made evident in the interviews conducted in Case I, when the majority (6 out of 8) of the respondents described the approaches/strategies adopted by the female leader as the most successful and effective at managing organisational change. Respondents attributed the effectiveness of these female adopted approaches to the aggressive and stringent measures applied by the female leaders.

Lastly, some of the findings further emphasised the importance of considering what each sex can contribute to the success of OCM, rather than considering general strategies, techniques and approaches to managing organisational change.

This is the first of five cases where data was collected. Four more cases from the private and public sectors will be analysed and presented in Chapters 6, 7 and 8.

6 CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF CASES II AND III (BANKING INSTITUTIONS)

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter presented the findings and discussions of Case I, the Ardency Health Centre. This chapter continues with the analysis and presentation of findings from the semi-structured interviews conducted in Cases II – the Beula Nationwide Bank of Africa, and III – the Catalita Trust Bank. As in the previous chapter, the same sets of themes will be discussed, as shown in Table 16 on the next page. Each theme, category and sub-category will be analysed and discussed, with commentaries from the respondents who participated in the research. There are some categories and sub-categories that may differ in the analysis chapters due to the different trends and patterns that emerged from the findings in the five organisations.

The layout of this chapter entails presenting findings from both cases in a systematic order. For example, the findings and discussions of Case II are presented first, followed by the findings and discussions of Case III under the same themes, categories and sub-categories. However, there are some instances where there were repetitive findings from both cases. These findings are discussed and presented together under one category, to avoid the repetitive presentation of findings. For example, the analysis from the responsible initiators of introduced changes and the analysis of gender differences revealed the same or similar findings, which are therefore presented together in the same category.

Table 16: Final List of Themes, Categories and Sub-Categories of Cases II and III

		Sections	Sub-sections
Case II and III Background Details	Case II and III Background Details	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respondents' Background 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Position/Role
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Age
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Length of Service
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cases II and III Background Details 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sector
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Change Management Department
T/L	Themes	Categories	Sub-categories
A	Change Types and Employed Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Types of Change 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initiators of Introduced Change(s)
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employed Strategies and Approaches 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outcome of Employed Strategies
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effect of Introduced Changes
B	Gender Leadership Differences and Preferences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender Leadership Differences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Influence of National and Sector Culture on Leadership Behaviour and Preferences • Influence of Followers' Gender and Behaviour on Leadership Behaviour and Preferences • Influence of Leaders' Personality on

			Leadership Behaviour and Preferences
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender Leadership Preferences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Male-Specific Preferences
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Female-Specific Preferences
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender-Effective Strategies 	
C	Leaders' and Followers' Perception of the Impact of Gender Leadership Differences on OCM Outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Leaders' Perception of the Impact of Gender Leadership Differences on OCM Outcome 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Followers' Perception of the Impact of Gender Leadership Differences on OCM Outcome 	

6.2 CASE II AND CASE III BACKGROUND DETAILS

This section has two sub-sections: the sector of Cases II and III and the existence of a change management department.

SECTOR OF CASE II AND CASE III

The respondents at Case II explained that the organisation is a financial institution that operates in the private financial sector and is split into different units responsible for

managing different business units. For instance, a particular unit, known as the public-sector group, is assigned to manage all public sector (federal or state government) accounts and transactions. Also, another unit, known as the corporate banking group, is responsible for handling accounts within corporate organisations that transact 500 million naira and above. Furthermore, there is a third unit, known as the retail banking group, responsible for retail transactions from 500 million and below, with shop owners as its main target. There is also an institutional banking group, which is involved with multinational companies, international businesses and other bigger corporate bodies. Additionally, the institutional unit was stated to be responsible for handling general public accounts. The respondents explained that the main reason for the creation of these units was to ensure that they sustained a competitive advantage, thereby ensuring that they attracted and retained all valuable customers.

Furthermore, when the respondents of Case II were asked about the aim(s) and objective(s) of the organisation, most of the respondents described them as providing the best possible financial service to the entire populace of Nigeria. As mentioned by Justin, one of the leaders, *“Our vision statement is to be the clear leader and Nigeria’s bank of first choice. Our mission is to remain true to our name by providing the best financial service possible”*.

In addition, the respondents of Case III were asked to specify the sector that Case III operates in. All of the respondents affirmed that Case III operates in the private sector. The respondents further described Case III as a commercial and financial institution that takes customer deposits for safe keeping and grants facilities and loans to those who are in need of such services. Their primary role is to breach the gap between the surplus end

and the deficit end – for those who have money to save, and those who do not have money but want money for investment.

CHANGE MANAGEMENT DEPARTMENT

As indicated in the preceding chapter and the literature review chapter, the 70 per cent failure rate of organisational change processes was attributed to the absence of change management departments or specialists directly responsible for managing the pre- and post-effects of the introduced changes. This led to an inquiry into the change management departments in organisations.

The descriptive case analysis reveals that three out of eight respondents (two males and one female, particularly subordinates) indicated that Case II has a department called the ‘transformation unit’, which manages change processes and initiatives in the organisation. By inference, there is a department that handles change or transformation-related issues, but it is not specifically called or tagged the change management department. On the contrary, five out of eight respondents (two males and three females, particularly leaders) reported that there is no specific department that manages or handles changes introduced into the organisation. It was realised that two out of the five respondents who stated that Case II did not have any specific change management department further stated that all departmental heads were trained to handle or manage sensitive issues, such as the management of changes in the organisation. For instance, Hassan, one of the male subordinates, said:

No! There is no specific change management department. All heads of departments are empowered to handle change management issues. This was done through training, where they are imparted on new process flows and procedures and how to manage change issues. Therefore, all departmental heads handle such issues.

From a critical perspective, it can be surmised that the transformational unit mentioned by a few of the respondents may not be as effective as expected or required. This is because a good number (five out of eight) of the respondents did not recognise or realise that there was a specific department to manage changes introduced into the organisation. Perhaps similar to Case I, there may have been some communications gaps where the functions and responsibilities of the said unit or department were not explicitly communicated to employees.

In relation to the findings from Case III, the thematic and descriptive case analysis reveals that six out of eight respondents (comprising three male and three female leaders and subordinates) remarked that there is no specific department that manages or handles changes introduced into the organisation. According to Nnadi, *"No! There is no specific department that manages the changes that have been introduced and implemented"*.

Speaking of Case III, two out of eight respondents (one male subordinate and one female leader) asserted that Case III has a unit that manages change processes. However, it is not called the change management department and is rather seen as or called the 'monitoring unit'. It monitors the standards and procedures of changes introduced into the organisation. The unit is responsible for analysing the effects of change against set standards, and enacting changes when approved by the management. Similar to the findings from Case II, it is possible that the existence of the stated units (the transformation unit from Case II and the monitoring unit from Case III) are not clearly communicated and defined, given that employees in the same organisations are not aware

of the existence of such a crucial department or unit. For instance, one of the female leaders said:

*Yes, there is a unit that manages such processes. However, it is not called a change management department..... but it is headed by some individuals. It is rather seen as a monitoring unit that monitors the standards and procedures of changes introduced..... They analyse the effects of change against all standards and enact the changes if approved by management.
(Onye)*

Therefore, drawing on the above findings, it can be construed that there may have been some communication gaps regarding the actual name of the unit and its roles and responsibilities, as these do not seem to have been clearly communicated to the entire workforce. It can also be construed that perhaps management needed to be clearer with the names given to related departments or units, because from the respondents' comments it seems that they expected such units or departments to be called the 'change management unit or department', considering the number of changes that have taken place in the organisations.

6.3 RESPONDENTS OF CASES II AND III BACKGROUND DETAILS

This section presents the background details of Case II and Case III, as well as that of the respondents who participated in both organisations.

RESPONDENTS' BACKGROUNDS

In order to conduct a deeper analysis and to have a clearer understanding of the responses, the participants were asked to confirm their gender, position, age and length of service with their present employer where they had experienced the stated changes. Similarly to the other cases, pseudonyms were employed for the participants and the organisations

were pen-named as the Beula Nationwide Bank of Africa (Case II) and the Catalita Trust Bank (Case III). Also, the respondents were further pen-named as shown in Tables 17 and 18. Tables 17 (Case II) and 18 (Case III) present the background details of the participants.

Table 17: Case II (Beula Nationwide Bank) Participants' Background Details

Respondents' Identification	Gender	Status	Position	Age	Length of Service (years)
Leonard	Male	Leader	Relationship Manager	37	7
Justin	Male	Leader	Operational Manager	41	7
Hafsat	Female	Leader	Relationship Manager	37	6
Jennifer	Female	Leader	Business Manager	40	7
Duada	Male	Subordinate	Secretary	27	4
Hassan	Male	Subordinate	Customer Service Representative	31	5
Rebecca	Female	Subordinate	Customer Service Representative	31	5
Pams	Female	Subordinate	Customer Service Representative	28	3

6.3.1.1 GENDER/SEX OF THE RESPONDENTS

Similar to Case I, confirmation of the respondents' gender was essential to this study, because the overall aim of this research entails examining men's and women's approaches

to organisational change scenarios and their potential impact on OCM outcomes. Consequently, this required collecting data from both sexes (male and female leaders and followers).

To elaborate on Table 17, a total of eight respondents participated in the research conducted in Case II, comprising two male leaders and two female leaders, who were interviewed in order to ascertain leaders' perception of the impact of gender leadership differences on OCM outcomes. The same is applicable to Case III, as shown in Table 18. Additionally, in order to achieve the overall aim of this study, this study deemed it fit to also explore the followers' perceptions of gender-effective strategies and the impact of gender on OCM outcomes. Correspondingly, leaders and followers were required to share their experiences or accounts of change processes in their organisations as leaders and recipients. Again, this is applicable to all of the cases in this study.

Table 18: Case III (Catalita Trust Bank) Participants' Background Details

Respondents' Identification	Gender	Status	Position	Age	Length of Service (Years)
Chinedu	Male	Leader	Branch Manager	44	7
Nnadi	Male	Leader	Internal Auditor	39	8
Timi	Female	Leader	Assistant Head of Marketing	40	6
Onye	Female	Leader	Assistant Head of Administration	42	5

Chineke	Male	Subordinate	Marketer	34	4
Dangote	Male	Subordinate	Customer Service Representative	39	6
Kurah	Female	Subordinate	Marketer	34	6
Hafsat	Female	Subordinate	Client Analyst	29	5

POSITION/ROLE OF RESPONDENTS

According to O'Connor (1993), the effectiveness and receptiveness of organisational change processes should be measured based on the age, experience, position and confidence of the change leaders, before the introduced change can be tagged as successful. Thus, it was necessary to know the position and responsibilities of the respondents who shared or discussed their experience or accounts of how changes were managed by male and female leaders of the organisations.

As shown in Tables 17 and 18, leaders and followers were interviewed across different departments of the organisation, occupying managerial and lower cadre positions. Tables 19 and 20 are tabular presentations of the roles and responsibilities of the respondents who participated in the research conducted in Cases II and III. These tables have been presented because they will be referred to in the course of the presentation of the findings, in relation to the respondents' quotes.

Table 19: Description of Case II Respondents' Positions, Roles and Responsibilities

R/ID	Respondents' Description of Roles and Responsibilities
Leonard	Is a relationship manager. As a relationship manager, Leonard's functions are assets and liability creations; creation of customers' accounts; managing relationships; and proffering financial advice where/when necessary.
Justin	Is a branch operational head. Justin's duties and responsibilities include running the daily operational activities of the branch and managing the services in the branch-payment of cash/deposits; general complaints; ATM functions and maintenance.
Hafsat	Is a relationship manager. Hafsat introduces quality business to the organisation, develops businesses and translates them to revenues for the institution. She manages both new and existing relationships with customers and clients of the institution. She is also responsible for making sure that the introduced and developed businesses bring referrals. From her explanation, she introduces new sets of business, manages the internal business and gets the entire business to introduce new businesses.
Jennifer	Is a business manager, whose sole responsibility is to manage all business-related transactions, dealings and queries.
Duada	Is a marketer. Duada's role as a marketer involves meeting targets and bringing valuable clients/customers into Case II.
Hassan	Is a customer service representative. Hassan's main duties as a customer service representative are to book loans and overdrafts, discuss general matters with customers and manage both existing and new customers. He is also responsible for addressing any requests made by customers and clients and to find solutions to any arising issues or concerns.
Rebecca	Rebecca confirmed that she is also a customer service representative, who liaises with customers, addresses their requests/queries and find solutions for any raised concerns and issues.
Pams	Is also a customer service representative who manages customers and clients allocated to her care. Pam further confirms that she also carries out the role of a private banker, whereby the institution allocates certain customers to her care and she deals directly with these.

Table 20: Description of Case III Respondents' Roles and Responsibilities

R/ID	Respondents' Description of Roles and Responsibilities
Chinedu	Is a branch manager of the company. By virtue of his role, he primarily manages all of the staff working in one of the branches located in the state capital of the country. He undertakes supervision of the branch to ensure that it is running properly in line with the laid-down principles of the overall organisation. He further described that he is the chief responsible officer of the branch on all affairs. He supervises people and utilities, processes and procedures in order to determine how to perform duties for the benefit of the institution and its customers.
Nnadi	Is an internal auditor, who is responsible for managing the financial auditing of two branches. He performs what is called back office duties – he does not interact with customers but undertakes an after-check of every banking transaction of the day.
Timi	Is the head of the marketing department. Timi's main roles are the management and supervision of the marketing department. She guides and co-ordinates the affairs of her department.
Onye	Is the head of administration. Her primary function is to oversee all that goes on within the administration and clerical units.
Chineke	Is a marketer. Chineke described that he searches for businesses, opens customers' accounts and manages customers under his care.
Dangote	Is also a customer service representative. His duties are to tap into existing businesses; develop businesses for the bank; and create new opportunities and ideas that could help with the profitability of the institution.
Kurah	Is also a marketer. Her role as a marketer involves meeting targets and bringing valuable clients/customers into Case III.
Lissa	Is a client analyst. Lissa explains that she is the interface between the bank and the customers. She provides assistance to clients, interacts with clients and resolves issues/concerns.

AGE OF RESPONDENTS

As established in the preceding chapter, demographic elements such as age, position, education and length of service are likely to influence leaders' behaviour and employed leadership style (Kotur & Anbazhagan, 2014). It can be argued that such elements could

also influence the responses or accounts shared by the respondents. For example, in relation to the length of service demographic, participants who have only worked for the organisation for less than a year may not be able to give a full account of the required information.

As shown in Table 17, the stated ages of the respondents ranged from 28 to 41 years in Case II. The organisation is one of the largest financial service providers in Nigeria. It has gone through a series of restructuring changes, especially with the emergence of a mergers and acquisitions external policy that affected most of the financial service providers in Nigeria. The participants' responses on the age demographic of the organisation show that the two cases from the private sector have a younger workforce (at least those who participated in this study) compared to other cases from the healthcare and public sectors.

Similar to Case II, Table 18 illustrates that Case III's participating workforce was also younger compared to the other cases from the health and public sectors. The respondents' age in Case III ranged from 29 to 44 years. With regards to the influence of the age demographic on the desired outcome of organisational change, it can be inferred that a few of the changes, such as a change in technology, strongly influenced the negative account that the respondents gave of their change experiences. Some of the respondents also explained that a change in leadership and policy led to the recruitment of younger employees, rather than an older workforce as it used to be. It was observed that financial service providers in the country were fiercely competitive, and that one of the ways they could gain a competitive advantage was to introduce the use of financial software into their banking operations. This however implied that younger employees would be

required in order to operate the introduced banking software, because older employees may not cope with the technical aspect of the software. This is one of the main reasons for the younger age demographic findings from the private financial banking sector. Retrospectively, this brings to mind the stance of Newton et al. (2005), who argue that an older workforce may be slow in cognitively processing things relative to their younger counterparts, which may place mental and emotional pressure on older people during organisational change-related learning.

LENGTH OF SERVICE

Drawing on Johnson (1990) and O'Connor's (1993) inference that OCM is contingent on demographic factors such as change experience, commitment and length of service, the respondents were required to indicate how long they had worked with or for their current employers, as per Cases II and III.

As indicated in Table 17, findings from the thematic template analysis and descriptive data analysis indicated that Case II respondents' length of service varied from 3 to 7 years. In elaboration, Pams, who is a customer service representative, had the lowest length of service (3 years), and Jennifer and Leonard, who are relationship and business managers, had the lengthiest service (7 years) in Case II.

Similarly, Case III respondents' length of service varied from 4 to 8 years. In clarification, Chineke, who is a marketer, had the lowest length of service (4 years), and Nnadi, a manager, had the lengthiest service (8 years). Speculatively, the respondents' length of service and experience contributed to their effort to discuss or give an account of their change experience. On the other hand, respondents who have worked for a long time with

an organisation may decide to withhold some vital information, due to their previous experience with change or media-related issues. For example, one of the respondents overtly stated that she was not fully disposed to participate in the interview at the scheduled time, because she needed more time to agree with her superiors on what they were willing to discuss and what they were not willing to disclose. Consequently, this could be one of the downsides of giving participants an interview brief prior to the exercise, because not only does it enable participants to reflect on their experiences, but it also gives them an opportunity to conceal some vital information that they do not wish to provide.

6.4 THEME A: CHANGE TYPES AND EMPLOYED STRATEGIES

Similar to Case I, participants from the private sector were also asked to specify the recentness of the introduced changes, because their definition or opinion of recent changes was required. Respondents from Case II, mostly leaders, confirmed that the discussed changes were ones that had occurred in the past 6 years, while Case III's changes were experienced in the past 7 years. Two categories are discussed under this theme: the types of change(s) that took place, and the strategies and approaches that were employed to manage the introduced changes.

CATEGORY 1: CHANGE TYPES

Interviewees' responses on the type of changes that occurred in Case II over the past 6 years are discussed below. When asked about the changes that took place in the organisation, Leonard, one of the male leaders (see Leonard's roles and responsibilities in Table 19), said:

The major changes observed recently are; structural changes, leadership changes, cultural changes, technological changes, policy changes..... There also have been changes in the work environment, in terms of achieving results. Initially, staff were appraised and promoted based on length of service, rather than being performance/achievement based. But at the moment, promotions are earned on results and achievements (Leonard)

Thus, the discussed and presented changes are interpretations of respondents' comments on the experienced changes, rather than their exact words.

Structural and Leadership Change – The respondents explained that the organisation experienced significant changes in the organisational flow and restructuring of various departments of the company. This was described as an alteration and modification of the organisational structure in Case II, which led to a new organisational structure in relation to systems of communication, authority, workflow and supervision. For instance, there was the appointment of new managing directors and new management teams that headed the organisation. The effects of structural and leadership changes further led to the culture of the organisation being altered on several occasions. Thus, this was mentioned as part of the changes that took place in the organisation. According to Onye (one of the female leaders):

A lot of changes have occurred in the past few years... Notable amongst them are changes in structure and leadership of the organisation, where different leaders were called into leadership positions that affected the structure of the organisation... This relatively affected the organisation's code of conduct and ways of doing things. (Onye)

Technological Change – Technological change encompassed new products, and upgrades to operational techniques or new skills. It had a lot more to do with innovation and invention. Being a financial institution, the bank has to remain competitive, which

came at the expense of employee redundancy. According to the respondents, one of the ways to achieve competitiveness was to introduce different technological applications that would advance the services they provided to their clients and customers. However, this came with the implication of increasing employee redundancy. For instance, Justin, one of the male leaders, expressed that:

One of the main changes that occurred was technological change that involved the introduction of new software. With the development of new technologies, I am afraid that machines will take over human services because the newly introduced software can be practically done by machine without human effort or support (Justin).

This was in line with Eitzen and Maxine's (2000) stance; they posited that technological changes in organisations might reduce labour costs by replacing many workers with machines that boost productivity and profit.

Changes in Reward System – In order to remain internally and externally competitive, Case II had to alter its reward system, which brought with it some negative and positive effects. The negatives were that some workers' salaries were reduced as a result of underperformance, while the positive aspects were that some workers had an increased salary as a result of outstanding performance. Duada, one of the male subordinates, explained that *“management also changed the way staff were rewarded and compensated, in the sense they introduced performance and non-performance pay to encourage people to be more useful and effective”*.

Changes in Policy – This was described by the respondents as the emergence of external edicts, decrees, rules and regulations that affected banking activities or operations. One

of these notable changes was the introduction of a cashless policy, where customers were encouraged to be involved with online banking for business and personal transactions, meaning they were in less possession of physical cash.

Change as a Result of Diversification – Case II diversified into different lines of business, for example by creating different units that dealt with different sectors and corporations, in order to achieve the organisational objectives. For example, Onye remarked: *“There was also a change in policy, especially the newly introduced cashless policy, and the company diversified into other lines of business, such as the introduction of new departments or units that deal with different aspects of the business”*.

Demographic Changes – This involved the employment of many more youths, resulting in a younger workforce. It was elaborated by the respondents that, in times past, Case II had an older workforce. With the emergence of innovation and new technologies, management had reduced the age of the workforce in order to mitigate the challenges that may be encountered by future innovative changes, such as the introduction of technological change.

Change as a Result of Political Interference – Most of the significant changes that took place were as a result of federal government political interference (the influence or impact of national dictates on corporate culture).

There were many commonalities between the changes that occurred in Cases II and III. When asked to discuss the recent (from the past seven years as acknowledged by leaders) changes that had taken place in the organisation, respondents at Case III mentioned the same set of changes as those that had occurred in Case II. However, there was the creation

of a new department in Case III, which did not take place in Case II. Respondents at Case III explained the creation of a new department as an addition and as a result of business expansion. For example, Onye, one of the female leaders, explained that:

There was also a change in policy, especially the newly introduced cashless policy, and the company diversified into other lines of business that led to the introduction of new departments or units that deal with different aspects of the business (Onye).

The subsequent section discusses the responsible initiators of the changes that took place in Case II and Case III.

SUB-CATEGORY 1: RESPONSIBLE INITIATORS OF INTRODUCED CHANGES

Organisations in Africa are a long distance away from attaining gender equality, despite the considerable effort put into eradicating gender inequality in organisations in the country (Adichie, 2013). However, Makinde (2016) reports that the Nigerian government has put a considerable amount of effort in promoting gender equality in African society. A remarkable example is the recently proposed gender and equal opportunity bill, which aims to promote equal rights for women and men, for the advancement and development of everyone in Nigeria (Makinde, 2016). This led the researcher to ask the respondents to confirm the composition of their senior management, or the board of directors, that initiated and drove the changes that took place in Cases II and III. With the reported managerial gender imbalance in organisations, this question was set to ascertain whether there is a gender balance or imbalance in the initiators of the changes introduced in the case organisations. This would contribute to OCM processes by encouraging the gender-balanced management of organisational change processes in order to achieve the desired outcome.

All of the respondents in Case II and Case III stated that their organisations had gender-balanced, male and female mixed senior management that initiated and drove the changes that occurred. This was acknowledged by all of the leaders and subordinates in the two cases from the private sector. According to Leonard, *“Mixed management, comprising male and female management, initiated and drove the changes introduced into the organisation”*.

Speculatively, it can be inferred that, within the private sector and with a particular emphasis on financial institutions, genderism is not a determining factor of managerial success, as there has always been the need to utilise the capabilities of both sexes within financial operations. Additionally, in recent times most private financial providers have attracted and involved more females than males, due to female employees’ marketing skills. It can be deduced that female bankers tend to achieve or accomplish set targets within a required timeframe more reliably when compared with their male counterparts. This is based on the researcher’s personal observations in the banking industry. This is also congruent with Chukwuka’s (2013) perception of gender stereotyping in the banking industries. Chukwuka (2013) further postulates that banking jobs are no longer assumed to be a male occupation, as they are now predominantly occupied by females, who are able to generate high organisational financial performance when compared to their male counterparts. According to Vinnicombe et al. (2015), the increasing gender balance in organisations could be attributed to the leadership and determination of many senior business leaders who are keen to address managerial gender gaps within organisations. In addition, the government has played a major role by organising networking events

between chairmen and female board candidates, in order to showcase the breadth of talents of both sexes (Vinnicombe et al., 2015).

CATEGORY 2: EMPLOYED STRATEGIES

As indicated in Chapter 1 (section 1.6), one of the objectives of this study was to review the current trends, strategies and approaches adopted by change managers, practitioners and agents when managing organisational change. This objective was partly achieved through a critical review of the extant literature and data collected from the field. Similar to Case I, male and female leaders in the financial institutions were asked to convey and describe the strategies and approaches they employed in managing and leading the changes that were introduced into the organisations. In addition, in order to validate or affirm the strategies mentioned by the leaders, male and female subordinates were asked to convey and describe the change leaders' employed strategies or approaches when managing the introduced changes.

Participants at Case II and Case III spoke about a range of strategies and approaches adopted to manage the implemented changes. It was realised that respondents from both cases reported similar strategies being employed by leaders to manage the changes introduced into the organisations. For example, Hassan, one of the male subordinates from Case II, reported that:

Management used effective communication and education to manage the occurring changes. They were also stern and autocratic in their leadership means. However, they mixed it with a little bit of flexibility. I also noticed that they gave room for us (employees) to contribute to the effective management of the changes that took place. For example, we were asked to make suggestions on better ways in managing implemented changes.

Correspondingly, the recurring mentioned strategies or approaches have been analysed, interpreted and discussed below. The discussed and presented strategies are interpretations of the respondents' comments about the adopted approaches or strategies, rather than their exact words.

Departmental Laid-down Rules – This involved organisational laid-down principles that leaders were mandated to adopt when managing the changes introduced into the organisations. A good number of the leaders stated that they were mandated to apply rules and policies set by management to manage any issues arising from the implemented changes. However, leaders still combined personal strategies with a code of conduct provided by management, which the respondents repeatedly called organisational or departmental laid-down principles.

Counselling and Constant Communication – This was also mentioned as an approach adopted by some of the leaders as a means of managing the changes prior to the introduction and post-implementation of the changes introduced. This approach involved informing and briefing the change recipients in groups of the recent developments and further actions that might be taken. In addition, leaders and subordinates affirmed that throughout the course of the change process, the leaders ensured that they constantly counselled the change recipients. The leaders further adopted the first step of Kotter's (1996) 8-step process to change implementation, by educating the change recipients about the need and urgency of the introduced change. The respondents affirmed that this approach was adopted before and after the change was introduced. It is presumed that employee resistance may be low when employees have a good perception and

understanding of the change that is to be introduced or implemented through constant communication and counselling (Dent and Goldberg, 1999).

Education, Training and Development – In this approach, the respondents mentioned that, prior to the implementation of the introduced change, senior management sent some senior members of staff to be trained on how to use the new software. This was mostly linked to any technological changes that were introduced. Trained members of staff were then delegated to train the rest of the workforce who required support with adapting to the changes in the organisation. According to Okafor (2009), if an employer makes it a point of duty to train employees on new trends and methods of work operation, there is a higher possibility that employees will embrace and accept the initiated changes.

Furthermore, leaders saw the need to enlighten recipients or employees about the benefits of the introduced change. This they carefully did by placing more emphasis on the benefits of change, in order for the recipients to come to terms with them and to appreciate the new business operations. Both leaders and subordinates discussed the efforts that management had made to provide proper education, training and development in order to mitigate mistrust, suspicion and fears, thus preventing the active or passive resistance from members of staff. However, there may have been a resigned compliance due to the value systems, and religious and cultural factors that exist in non-Western organisations (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011).

Carrot and Stick Approach – This is an approach where leaders rewarded outstanding performance and punished lassitude or underperformance as a result of the changes

introduced into the organisation. This was acknowledged by both leaders and subordinates in both cases.

As stated earlier, the respondents of Cases II and III discussed the same or similar OCM approaches or strategies. However, some of the leaders at Case II discussed the fact that the management adopted an approach called the '**Stupid-idea Approach**'. This they described as a process where management encouraged the participation and involvement of employees in the decision-making process of OCM. It involved giving room to all employees to offer any sorts of suggestions and ideas that would facilitate the management of change in the organisation. After a careful review of all the ideas by line managers, sensible ideas were sent to senior management for consideration. This was accentuated by Justin, one of the male leaders at Case II, who said:

I also used the stupid-idea rule approach, where we give room to employees, especially those who have been massively affected by the introduced change, to come up with any idea or suggestion ... meaningful ones are then forwarded to senior management for consideration. (Justin)

In a nutshell, both leaders and subordinates were satisfied and happy with the strategies and approaches adopted by leaders in managing the changes that occurred in Cases II and III. These were further confirmed by the subordinates commending leaders on their adopted strategies for managing change. On a deeper note, it could be that the subordinates commended the leaders' approaches as a result of a resigned compliance linked to African value systems, and cultural and religious factors, as discussed in Chapter 3. Perhaps leaders in the midst of organisational laid-down rules provided the utmost support for driving OCM and achieving the desired result.

SUB-CATEGORY 1 AND 2: OUTCOME OF THE INTRODUCED CHANGES AND EMPLOYED STRATEGIES

Drawing on the research problems stated in section 1.4 in Chapter 1, this study went further to examine the outcome or effect of the introduced changes and the strategies/approaches employed to manage these changes in Cases II and III. The findings are discussed and interpreted below.

With regards to the effect of the changes and the employees' reaction to them, respondents in Cases II and III described the effect of the introduced changes and the employed strategies in three significant repeated patterns. The participants highlighted that some of the changes had a positive outcome and reaction from employees, while some had a mixed reaction or outcome, and others a negative outcome or reaction.

To elaborate on the repeated patterns articulated by respondents at Case II, one of the female subordinates, Rebecca, acknowledged that most of the introduced changes were successfully implemented and met with a positive reaction from members of staff. Rebecca further mentioned that the outcome of the employed strategies and approaches turned out to be positive because the changes that took place, and the adopted strategies, all had a tranquil effect that raised no resistance. For instance, the structural creation of new departments was a tranquil change that did not receive opposition, as the members of staff stood to benefit massively from it. This prevented active or passive resistance from members of staff who were directly affected. However, there may have been a resigned compliance due to the value systems, and religious and cultural factors that exist in non-Western organisations (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011). It was further observed that a few of the respondents (two out of eight) expressed dissatisfaction over the strategies

or approaches employed to manage the introduced changes. The inference was that some of the changes and employed strategies to manage them met with a negative outcome or reaction from those who were affected. In contrast to the first subordinate's assertion, one of the female subordinates expressed her account as:

Not everyone has been warm towards the implemented changes. Obviously some of my colleagues were affected by the changes introduced and the strategies provided by top management to manage the introduced changes had an adverse effect. I don't think the right measures were applied to manage them. For instance, they enacted the use of new software without prior proper training on how to use the software. This in effect resulted in low productivity and performance from members of staff. (Pams)

A slightly higher number of the respondents (five out of eight) at Case II further accentuated that employees, especially those directly affected, expressed a mixed reaction to changes that had an immensely negative impact on their jobs. The respondents, especially subordinates, remarked that effective strategies were not provided to mitigate the adverse effect of the introduced changes. For instance, Duada, one of the male subordinates, remarked as below:

The outcome or effect of the introduced changes and the strategies adopted to manage the implemented changes had mixed feelings or outcomes. The reason for this was due to the fact that some of the changes, especially the technological change, favoured some people, while some were not lucky enough so were adversely affected by the introduced change. (Duada)

From a vantage point, strategies or approaches (such as intensive training on how to use the introduced software) would have been very helpful and beneficial to those who were directly affected by the implemented changes. The respondents' accounts of the outcomes of the introduced changes highlighted contrasting responses from employees who worked with or for the same organisation. Some posited that the changes introduced were tranquil

in nature, so therefore did not stir up any form of resistance or opposition. More so, they held the opinion that the adopted strategies were fantastic and successful. In contrast, some inferred that the introduced changes were harsh, so therefore stirred resistance from members of staff. The third set expressed the view that the outcome and effect of the introduced changes met with a mixed reaction from members of staff. In sum, it can be construed that an individual's personality and previous experience might influence how they react to encountered changes, thus giving varying opinions of negative, mixed and positive outcomes or reactions.

Speaking of Case III, the Catalita Trust Bank, the subordinate respondents' accounts of their reaction towards the introduced changes and the strategies adopted by the leaders included negative outcomes and mixed reactions. A significant number (six out of eight) remarked that some of the changes and strategies employed to manage the changes met with a mixed outcome or reaction, especially by the employees who were affected. Also, similar to Case II, two out of eight respondents in Case III expressed dissatisfaction with the management of changes. Thus, the introduced changes had met with a negative reaction, which yielded stern opposition or resistance from members of staff who were directly affected. The changes that had met with this reaction were identified as technological and cultural changes. The respondents, especially subordinates, accentuated that appropriate strategies or approaches were not adopted to manage the changes that took place in the organisation. Additionally, one of the male subordinates (Chineke) remarked that the purported negative outcome of the introduced changes was due to the fact that inappropriate strategies had been employed to manage them. According to him:

Most of the changes introduced had a negative and adverse outcome, due to the nature of the changes introduced. I believe that the strategies/approaches were not very effective for the kind of changes that were introduced. (Chineke)

In retrospect, Chineke's view is not far removed from the premise of Belbin (1993), Clarke and Pratt (1985), Kirton (1976) and Senior and Fleming (2006), who stated that extreme care should be taken not to presume that the same leadership style can be adopted in all change situations. This is because some leadership styles are best suited to managing certain types of change, so may not be appropriate to be applied to all change types.

It was realised that the subordinates who were recipients of the introduced changes were dissatisfied with how management or leaders had managed the changes. The inductive, thematic and descriptive case analysis clearly showed that one out of four subordinate respondents in Case III perceived the changes and espoused strategies as successful and positive. The rest of the subordinates believed that the changes had met with a negative or mixed reaction. Speculatively it can be construed that, due to job insecurity within the African context, most employees prefer not to reveal the actual state of things in order to save their job. Additionally, as established in the literature, there may have been a resigned compliance due to value systems and religious and cultural factors that exist in non-Western organisations (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011).

6.5 THEME B: GENDER LEADERSHIP DIFFERENCES AND PREFERENCES

With regards to gender leadership differences, Booysen (1999a, and 2001) examined African male and female leaders' leadership differences and similarities in the retail banking sector. It was found that African male leaders placed more emphasis on performance, competition and winning, domination, control, and directive leadership than their female counterparts. African female leaders focused on collaboration, participation,

intuition, empowerment, and empathy. This shows that there may be significant leadership differences and preferences in the way that men and women lead and manage change processes.

With reference to the reviewed literature, it was established that men and women typically have distinct leadership styles. However, there are some perils attached to the issue of stereotyping, with the inference being that there are different ‘gender-linked leadership styles’ (Moran, 1992:483-485). Therefore, this study aimed to determine whether differences exist in the way that both sexes lead and manage change processes. This theme thus emerged from achieving the second objective of this study, which was to establish and examine the differences and preferences in the ways that men and women manage organisational change. Male and female lead and subordinate respondents in Cases II and III were asked questions in relation to the distinct styles that both sexes adopted for managing and leading change processes in organisations. It is worth mentioning that the styles stated in this theme were interpretations of the interviewees’ comments on the adopted leadership styles, such as transformational and transactional leadership styles adopted by both sexes.

There were many commonalities in the respondents’ comments from Cases II and III. Therefore, the findings from both cases have been analysed and presented together in the same category.

CATEGORY 1: GENDER LEADERSHIP DIFFERENCES

In this category, the respondents were asked whether they had observed specific differences in the way that each sex led and managed change processes, based on their personal experiences as leaders and recipients of change. The inductive, thematic and

descriptive case analysis indicated that some of the respondents (three out of sixteen, comprising one female leader and two male subordinates) remarked they did not observe any gender differences in the way that both sexes led and managed change processes in the organisation. Therefore, the three respondents from both cases did not identify any differences in each sex's leadership and management style for leading or managing organisational change. However, one of the male subordinates (Duada) from Case II, who stated that he did not observe any differences, further explained that change management or leadership depends on the sex and behaviour of the recipient who is being managed, and that it has nothing to do with the sex of the leader. For example, he articulated his opinion as:

No, it depends on subordinates; difference depends on the kind or personality or sex of subordinates they are leading. Change as it concerns males and females does not have anything to do with the gender of the leader. In essence, they apply the most suited style for the particular subordinate's sex or personality. For instance, the style applied on a female subordinate may differ from what is applied on male subordinate. (Duada)

The above commentary brings to mind that leadership behaviour or style could also be influenced by the personal characteristics of the followers and the nature of the organisational process. In essence, leaders led and managed implemented changes while taking into consideration the followers and the nature of the change. Fielder's (1994) contingency leadership models attributes leaders' effectiveness to the personal characteristics and situations faced by the group of employees. This further brings into forefront the impact that this may have on achieving OCM desired outcome. According to some followership and leadership scholars (Dvir & Shamir, 2003; Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Yukl, 2006), most traditional perspective in the leadership literature mainly focuses

on leaders and pays less attention to the role that followers play in shaping leader's style and expected behaviour.

On the contrary, thirteen out of sixteen respondents in Cases II and III indicated that they observed significant differences in the way that both sexes led and managed the changes introduced into the organisation. The observed differences had to do with distinct styles that both sexes adopted for managing the introduced changes. All male leaders and female subordinates observed gender differences, but female leaders and male subordinates, especially in case II, had mixed perceptions of gender differences in OCM. This brings to light the above commentary on Duada's point of view, which stated that differences depend on the personal characteristics of the recipients or followers, and not the sex of the leaders. There could be a stronger link or connection between male leaders and female subordinates or recipients, considering the fact that most female subordinates consciously or subconsciously prefer to be managed and led by the opposite sex, especially in Africa, as evidenced in the findings of this research. This is clearly stated by Justin, one of the male leaders, who remarked:

I have come to realise and accept that female employees prefer to work with the opposite sex, perhaps knowingly or unknowingly, and they have proved to be more effective working with the opposite sex that manages them. (Justin)

From a vantage point, it can be speculated that the observed differences in both sexes' leadership styles could be as a result of the African context. This is because women tend to be more transactional than men, contrary to the European context, as established in the reviewed literature. For example, Booysen (2001) characterised female leaders from the banking sector as transformational and interactive leaders and male leaders as

transactional and command-oriented leaders. In contrast, a greater number of the respondents in the banking sector in this research stated that female leaders were more transactional and that male leaders were more transformational, contrary to the reviewed literature. According to Rigg and Sparrow (1994), male leaders are considered more paternalistic and authoritarian than their female counterparts

Additionally, some of the respondents further expressed that the absence of gender differences was a result of organisational laid-down rules that governed the management of changes. For instance, Dangote, who is a male subordinate at Case III, elaborated on the absence of such differences as: *“No! Everything is always evenly done. All leaders followed departmental principles set up by overall management, made up of mixed management”*.

Two common trends also emerged whilst exploring the second objective (establishing and examining the differences and preferences in the ways that men and women manage organisational change). Similar to Case I, some of the respondents in Cases II and III attributed the observed gender differences to the personality of leaders, and not necessarily to the sex of leaders. For instance, Chineke, one of the male subordinates in Case III, commented on the observed differences as follows:

In my humble opinion, I think male and female leadership differences may not be because of the sex of the leader but solely on the personality of the leader and their level of managerial expertise or experience... X and Y managers may have adopted certain leadership styles because of their personal characteristics or attributes and not necessarily because of their gender as a male or female. In summary, I would say that whatever leadership difference that may have been observed boils down to the experience and personality of the leader. (Chineke)

CATEGORY 2: GENDER LEADERSHIP PREFERENCES

It was established in the literature that there are gender disparities in the way and manner in which managers lead and manage. More so, as observed in the previous theme, a substantial number (thirteen out of sixteen) of respondents from Cases II and III reported that they observed and noticed significant differences in the ways that male and female leaders led and managed change processes in the organisation. This study further investigated the most preferred style of leadership or management style adopted by both sexes in managing and leading the changes that occurred. Two sub-categories (male-specific preferred styles and female-specific preferred styles/approaches) were formed in this category and are discussed below. The highlighted and discussed gender leadership preferences are the interpretations of the respondents' responses.

SUB-CATEGORY 1: MALE-SPECIFIC LEADERSHIP PREFERENCES

Respondents in Case II who remarked that they observed gender differences in both sexes' leadership styles were asked to describe the strategies or styles that they observed male leaders adopting. The inductive content and descriptive case analysis revealed that male leaders primarily adopted what was interpreted as soft leadership styles, such as a laissez faire approach, which was mentioned by four out of eight respondents, comprising one male leader, and one female and two male followers. The second leadership style revealed by the inductive content and descriptive case analysis was the male leaders' adoption of transformational approaches; this was mentioned by two out of eight respondents, comprising one female leader and one female subordinate. It was further realised that male leaders adopted contingency approaches, as mentioned by one of the male leaders. According to Pams:

I observed that the way the male leaders managed the changes differed from the way the female leaders managed and led it. It was apparent that male managers managed with more lenient and softer approaches such as seeking our advice on how to do things better and more people-oriented rather than the aggressive medium

Conversely, one out of eight participants indicated that they did not observe or notice differences in leadership, but that leaders led based on their personalities and organisational laid-down principles to manage the changes that took place in Case II. The overall findings of male-specific leadership preferences revealed that male leaders predominantly adopted soft approaches, such as transformational and democratic leadership styles, a position in contrast to the views of several leading authors and researchers, such as Eagley and Johnson (1987), Lindstead et al. (2005), Moran (1992) and Rigg and Sparrow (1994). These authors are of the opinion that some of the male leaders are predominantly transactional in their leadership styles. However, this was opposed by Statham (1987), who described male leaders as image-engrossed and autonomy-invested, and thus with a greater tendency to be transformational, compared to female leaders.

In addition, respondents at Case III, the Catalita Trust Bank, were also asked to comment on the styles of leadership that were predominantly adopted by male leaders when leading and managing change processes. In contrast to Case II, three out of eight respondents (particularly male leaders) acknowledged that male leaders adopted stringent methods such as hard, transactional and autocratic leadership styles in managing and leading changes introduced into Case III. As remarked by Chinedu, one of the male leaders: “*Men tend to be more aggressive and care less about the feeling of their staff*”. However, there was a split in opinions, as three out of eight respondents (particularly subordinates) stated

that they observed male leaders predominantly adopting soft (democratic and transformational) measures for leading and managing change processes in the organisation. *“Male managers appear to use soft and tranquil measures to manage their subjects”* (Lissa). In addition, two out of eight respondents asserted that they did not notice any differences in leadership, but that leaders led and managed changes based on their personality and departmental laid-down principles.

Therefore, it can be surmised that male leaders of Case III employed a mixture of soft and hard approaches or styles to leading and managing changes that were introduced into the organisation. However, it was realised that it was mostly male leaders’ comments (so contrary to the subordinates’ comments) that revealed that male leaders had predominantly adopted hard approaches. From a more critical point of view, it could be construed that male leaders consciously portrayed themselves as hard or primary leaders of organisational changes. This was evidenced in the reviewed literature that situated men as primary and hard leaders, particularly good at managing the processes and resources of organisational change (Tyler, 2005). Consequently, male leaders who participated in the research stated that they adopted hard approaches to leading, perhaps to maintain maleness or ego in their approaches. On the other hand, both male and female subordinates acknowledged that male leaders tended to adopt soft and transformational approaches to managing and leading organisational change processes, similar to the findings from Case II. This again was contrary to gender leadership proponents such as Hinkin and Tracey (1999), who posited that male leaders are transactional leaders.

SUB-CATEGORY 2: FEMALE-SPECIFIC LEADERSHIP PREFERENCES

The respondents were also asked to describe female-specific styles adopted by the female leaders for managing change processes in organisations.

According to the respondents, some of the female leaders in Case II were said to have adopted hard and transactional approaches and autocratic and command-oriented approaches or styles to manage the changes that took place there. A greater number of the respondents (six out of eight, comprising male and female leaders and subordinates) stated that female leaders were more transactional in their leadership styles or approaches, and asserted that most of the women leaders preferably adopted hard, autocratic and command-oriented approaches to manage and lead introduced changes. According to Pams: *“Women were very aggressive and hard in their approaches.... this I kind of preferred though.”* This was inconsistent with gender leadership theories and models that depict women as more transformational in their leadership styles (Booyesen, 1999a & 2001, Murray and Syed, 2006, Paton and Dempster, 2002, and Rigg and Sparrow, 1994), rather than transactional as evidenced in the above findings. However, one of the male subordinates (Duada) remarked that female leaders did not apply a preferred style to lead and manage the introduced changes. They explained that female leaders rather led and managed change processes in the organisation by following the strictly laid-down principles that were set by management to manage and lead such initiatives. Additionally, one of the female leaders (Hafsat) further posited that female leaders led and managed the introduced changes according to their personalities, rather than according to their sex.

The descriptive case analysis of Case III showed that male leaders acknowledged female leaders as more transformational in OCM. Conversely, female leaders acknowledged

female leadership styles as more transactional, although some of the female leaders were of the stance that female leaders lead and manage based on their personality, rather than on their sex. For example, Hafsat acknowledged that she is one such leader, who tends to lead and manage change processes in relation to her personal attributes or characteristics and not necessarily because she is a female leader. It was further realised that half of the subordinates described women's leadership styles as transactional, similar to the female leaders' remarks that women prefer to adopt hard or transactional leadership styles. In opposition to this, Kurah, one of the female subordinates, believed that women leaders adopted soft approaches or styles, such as democratic, laissez faire and transformational, for leading and managing the changes that occurred in Case III. For instance, Kurah said, *"From my years of working with men and women leaders, I have noticed that men are more command-oriented in their management style and women are softer in their management style"*.

Moreover, one of the subordinate respondents expressed the view that leaders strictly led and managed change processes according to organisational or departmental laid- down guidelines. This however cannot counteract the remarks of six out of eight responses on female leaders applying a mix of transactional and transformational leadership approaches in in their leadership of OCM.

The synopsis of the analysis on the female preferred leadership style findings from Case III revealed a mix of transformational (mentioned by three out of eight) and transactional (mentioned by three out of eight) leadership styles predominantly being adopted by female leaders. However, some female leaders led and managed based on their

personality and the organisational laid-down principles that guided change management processes.

CATEGORY 3: GENDER-EFFECTIVE STRATEGIES

As observed in the first category of this theme, men and women do have distinct leadership styles for leading and managing organisational change, according to some of the respondents. This category further explored the most functional or suited style for managing organisations and whether a blend of both sexes might be best suited to addressing an organisation's crisis or change processes, as premised by Moran (1992). According to Syed and Murray (2008), organisational routines and managerial structures can be built in a way that accommodates and combines both masculine and feminine traits irrespective of the sector, job or industry, which all involve strategic thinking and communication skills. This, Powell (1988) premised, is because both masculine and feminine values bring a wealth of benefits to organisations and therefore mixed managerial teams would learn from working together as a combined synergetic team. As in Case I, this category was predetermined from the review of the literature and was investigated through the semi-structured interviews conducted in both organisations. This was done by asking the respondents about which gender's leadership style or approach they considered to be more effective and successful for managing and leading change processes in the organisations.

The inductive content and descriptive case analysis of Case II showed that the strategies or leadership styles adopted by female leaders tended to be more productive and successful in managing and leading change processes in organisations. Leonard remarked, *"I would say female leaders are more successful in managing and leading*

change situations, perhaps as a result of their natural trait of motherly and emotional empathy nature in specific given situations”.

In elaboration, all eight respondents said that the most effective style or strategy adopted by female leaders was a dominant style or approach. They also attributed the effectiveness of female adopted approaches to the fact that they were very empathic, determined for success and aggressive in nature. Interestingly, this view was expressed by male leaders and subordinates of Case II, without bias, according to them. One could have assumed that male leaders and subordinates would remark that male leaders’ predominant styles or strategies were more effective or successful, based on the findings from the literature. For example, Melissa’s (2005) research reported that women were ineffective and inadequate for significant managerial positions, such as managing vital organisational processes. Conversely, the findings of this study revealed the opposite assumptions. Bem Sex Role Inventory research indicates that effective leadership behaviours are typically defined as masculine traits (Bem, 1981 and Choi and Fuqua, 2003) as adopted by the female leaders of the present study. Similarly, studies conducted in Japan, Australia, Malaysia and Zimbabwe indicated similar results of masculine traits being more effective in leadership situations (Leung and Moore, 2003; Sugihara and Katsurada, 1999 and Wilson et al., 1990). This is also similar to Schein’s (1970) model of ‘think manager: think male’. The above discussions indicate that the participants’ perceived OCM effective or successful manager is not necessarily the sex but the pattern or style of adopted approach to manage the change programmes.

With regards to gender-effective strategies in Case III, five out of eight (comprising all female leaders and subordinates and one male leader) interviewees acknowledged women

leaders and their adopted styles or approaches as being better for managing change processes in organisations. As in Cases I and II, the respondents at Case III further attributed the effectiveness of the adopted strategies to the stringent measures adopted by female leaders to managing and leading the changes that occurred in the organisation. This raises the question of whether women leaders and subordinates portrayed female leaders and their associated styles or approaches as being most suitable. However, to counteract such assumptions or speculations, one of the male leaders expressed his perception of gender-effective strategies in support of the female leaders' and subordinates' opinions:

I personally feel that female leaders tend to manage better than male leaders during change processes because female managers are better in managing change situations that concern the human and welfare aspect. This perhaps might be that nature has made it so and female managers are very observant. In a stormy change situation, I believe that female leaders are better in managing the situation to a tranquil state (Chinedu).

In contrast to the above findings, one of the male leaders (Nnadi) commented that male leaders are more efficient and effective in managing and leading changes in organisations. He said that he has observed that male leaders achieve expected results or outcomes within the required timeframe and more effectively than female leaders. Thus, male leaders adopted styles or strategies were considered most effective and successful. This is congruent with Schein's (1973) managerial sex role stereotype model of "think manager—think male". The model is of the opinion that the characteristics associated with successful organisational management are held more by men than by women (Schein, 1975 cited Schein 2001).

There were also two respondents (male subordinates) who expressed the view that both sexes' strategies are effective and successful. This they stated was as a result of the personality of the leader, who led and managed based on organisational, laid-down rules. Also, it can be argued that some respondents were somewhat careful about discussing such sensitive issues, in order to secure their jobs.

The summative analysis of gender-effective strategies or approaches in Cases II and III interestingly revealed women's strategies as most suited for managing change processes in organisations. Speculatively, it is logical for human beings to defend and put themselves forward as best in any given situation. But the findings from both cases indicated male leaders' acknowledgement of women as more suitable leaders for managing change processes in organisations. The respondents gave instances of how women are better welfare managers, who therefore will be ideal for managing organisational change processes. This was also in line with the reviewed literature, which inferred that female managers were better managers of proposed changes in organisations as a result of their empowering and empathic nature (Eagley, 1987, Gibson, 1993 and Paton and Dempster, 2002). Rosener (1990) and Oerton (1996) supported Paton and Dempster's stance by premising that a feminine model of leadership is likely to be more appropriate and most effective through an economic downturn than the 'command-and-control' leadership styles espoused by most male managers. However, interestingly, contrasting with Rosener's (1990) and Oerton's (1996) premise, command-oriented or transformational styles were the ones indicated by the respondents as being predominantly employed by female leaders in both organisations. These approaches were

deemed to be more suited to managing and leading OCM processes because of the stringent and hard measures applied.

6.6 THEME C: LEADERS' AND FOLLOWERS' PERCEPTION OF THE IMPACT OF GENDER ON OCM

This theme was predefined from the literature review and the study's central research questions. Also, in order to achieve the third objective, (ascertaining the impact that gender might have on the management of changes in organisations), both male and female leaders and subordinates in Cases II and III were asked to describe their perception of the impact of gender on OCM.

Two categories are discussed under this theme: leaders' and subordinates' perceptions of the impact of gender on OCM.

CATEGORY 1: LEADERS' PERCEPTION OF GENDER IMPACT ON OCM

Similar to Case I, three significant repeated trends were also realised from the findings achieved from the participants' responses on the impact of gender on organisational management in Case II. Leaders' comments on their perceptions of the gender impact on OCM were analysed and categorised into gender having either a 'major', 'moderate' or 'no' impact. Two out of four respondents, particularly female leaders, were of the opinion that gender has a major impact on the management of organisational change. The respondents explained that psychological bases, emotional empathy and some observed gender leadership differences enabled gender to have a major impact on OCM. Therefore, it may contribute to the success of OCM if considered adequately. Hafsat expressed the following:

Due to the vast differences in men and women's general managerial operations, I believe that gender might have a strong influence on how changes are managed in organisations... specifically, I have seen female leaders doing fantastically well with always convincing and getting the employees to buy into the reasons for implementing the change... Especially when the change might affect their performance and normal work routine, the workforce tend to show some signs of dissatisfaction and resistance for disrupting their work flow... Errrrmm.... Women have done better than the male leaders trying to convince the employees and getting them at the pace they used to be, and I think this is strong reason for gender to have possible influence on organisational change management. It is all about knowing the specific strengths of leaders and strategically placing them to oversee what they are specifically good at doing.

Similarly, one of the leaders (Justin) described gender as having a moderate impact and he said that it should be considered when managing changes in organisations, because some staff are more comfortable working with the opposite or the same sex. This he called the 'same or opposite sex syndrome'. Below is an excerpt from his comments:

Some people prefer working with the opposite sex. It is probably because that's where they get more attention from..... I have come to realise and accept that female employees prefer to work with the opposite sex, perhaps knowingly or unknowingly, and they have proved to be more effective working with the opposite sex that manages them. On the other hand, the opposite sex seems to neglect or overlook what is on the ground. This is due to a feeling of same sex syndrome, where the person in question feels he/she can do better or has passed through a similar situation or challenge.

On the contrary, one out of the eight respondents in Case II did not agree that gender had an impact on OCM. The reason for the respondent's opinion was that both sexes have been equally represented, so gender equality was not an issue that would stir up any form of opposition or disagreement for management practices or processes such as OCM.

The leaders' responses from Case III had three significant findings: OCM had a major or moderate impact (according to two male leaders) and no impact (according to two female leaders). In elaboration, two out of four leaders believed that gender does not have an

impact on the management of organisational change. This is because they do not see any link or relationship between the two concepts of gender and OCM. They further suggested that gender should not be used as one of the measuring criteria to manage OCM. Onye, one of the female leaders, puts it as:

“No, I don’t think gender has an impact on change management and should not be considered..... It should not even be considered as one of the measuring criteria to judge its outcome. My reason is due to the fact that leaders, be it men and women, will attain the desired goal irrespective of their sex”.

On the contrary, two out of four male leader respondents premised that gender has a major and moderate impact on the management of organisational change. The major and moderate impact was attributed by the respondents to gender differences that exist in OCM leadership styles. Conversely to the female leaders’ perceptions, male leaders expressed the view that gender should be considered in the design of change management programmes, as a result of the impact it has on the change processes in organisations. However, this impact and consideration could be moderate. According to Nnadi, one of the male leaders, *“Yes, gender should be moderately considered in the design of change management as a result of the impact it has on change processes in organisations”.*

In sum, it was realised that male and female leaders had diverse opinions on the impact of gender on OCM. Gender differences in thinking ability, or the psychological bases of gender differences in men and women, could have yielded such diverse perceptions, as established in the reviewed literature by Williams and Best (1990 and 1994) and Williams et al. (1999). Drawing on both sexes’ responses, it can be construed that women exhibited transactional traits by inferring that there is no link or relationship between gender and OCM. Female leaders were considered more goal- and result-oriented in their perception

of gender differences in OCM. In contrast, men exhibited transformational leadership styles through their expression of a major and moderate impact of gender on OCM.

CATEGORY 2: FOLLOWERS' PERCEPTIONS

This category interprets and discusses the responses from male and female subordinates of Cases II and III, in order to achieve objective three of this study that explored leaders and recipients' perception of the impact of gender leadership differences on OCM outcome.

Three out of four subordinates (males and females) in Case II considered that gender had an impact on OCM. Conversely, Duada, one of the male subordinates, contested this perception, purporting that there is an absolute gender balance in Case II, where both sexes operate at the same frequency or level. He further expressed that it is all about the leader's personality or attitude, and not their gender. Therefore, he thought that gender should not be considered when designing OCM interventions.

I would say no. There is an absolute gender balance here in this institution, in the sense that both sexes operate at the same frequency. It is all about the individual (personality and attitude), and not gender. I would also add that it further boils down to commitment. Hence, gender has no impact and should not be considered when designing organisational strategies.

In Case III, all the subordinate respondents believed that gender had an impact on OCM, due to the significant identified gender leadership differences that exist in both sexes' leadership styles. The respondents further classified the impact as major and significant in driving OCM to the desired outcome. According to Lissa, one of the female subordinates, due to the differences in the ways that both sexes lead and manage change processes, gender has a substantial impact on organisational change. Therefore, it should

be strongly considered when designing and implementing organisational policies. She remarked:

Yes, due to the differences in the way both sexes lead and manage change processes, I believe that gender has a substantial impact on the management of organisational change. Therefore, it should be strongly considered when designing and implementing organisational policies.

However, Chineke, one of the male subordinates, was of the perception that the stated impact might largely depend on the nature of the introduced change. For example, he explained that gender may have a significant impact on changes that involve human welfare or IT, as organisations will require the capabilities of both sexes to successfully lead and manage such changes to a desired outcome. He puts it as:

I would still reiterate that gender impact and its consideration largely depend on the type of change that will be effected. For instance, if it involves a change in human welfare, women can be considered, but if it is a change that involves IT, then men should be considered.

6.7 SUMMARY OF CASE II KEY FINDINGS

A male and female combined methodology... I believe is the driving force or engine behind its success. From personal experience as a recipient, I have seen both sexes bring in their different strategies and the mixture of both strategies was fantastic. Even people who were not comfortable with the new era of things had to adjust, because of the way things were handled by both sexes. (Rebecca)

Case II is a financial institution that operates within the private sector with over 1,500 employees. It was observed from the respondents' comments that there may be some communication gaps concerning the existence of departments or units that managed the post- and pre-effects of changes introduced into the organisation. However, the respondents talked about other units undertaking such a role with a different departmental name. Thus, it can be construed that perhaps the name or responsibilities of the said

department were not clearly defined, which led to the respondents claiming that no such department existed.

The organisation has undergone several changes, such as a change in leadership, technological changes and structural and administrative changes, as a result of political inference, cultural change and a change in policy. The participants commented that some of the changes introduced into the organisation were pre-planned in nature and were communicated to members of staff prior to their implementation.

Furthermore, when respondents were asked about the outcome of the introduced changes and the employed strategies, a fair number (five out of eight respondents) described the outcome of the introduced change and the adopted strategies as having a mixed outcome or reaction from members of staff. However, a few of the respondents further mentioned that some of the introduced changes and adopted strategies received a positive outcome or reaction. Two out of eight respondents stated that the introduced changes and adopted strategies had a negative reaction or outcome as a result of the adoption of ineffective strategies or approaches.

As established in the reviewed literature, there are some differences in the way that men and women manage general managerial practices. This was supported by some of the respondents in Case II, where a substantial number of the respondents (six out of eight) expressed that they observed differences in the ways that both sexes led and managed the changes introduced into the organisation. However, some of the respondents attributed the observed gender differences to the leaders' personality, rather than to their gender, and they also stated that the behaviour and gender of the followers influenced the leaders'

adopted styles and exhibited behaviours. Also, the respondents attributed the absence of gender leadership differences to the influence of national or sector dictates, which interfered with the leaders' freedom to adopt their preferred management styles.

When the participants were asked to describe the preferred style adopted by both sexes, six out of eight explained that transformational and democratic styles were the predominant styles adopted by the male leaders, whilst they described female leaders as predominantly adopting autocratic and command-oriented styles. This was in contrast to the reviewed literature, for example the meta-analysis of Eagley and Johnson (1987, as cited in Moran, 1992:482), which deduced that democratic and participative leadership styles were more prevalent among female than male managers.

Consequently, drawing from theories and models in the literature review, it was surmised that female managers may be better equipped and more effective in managing proposed changes in organisations (Tyler 2005, and Syed and Murray, 2008). This was made evident from the responses of the respondents in Case II, when six out of eight described female leaders' approaches and strategies as being most effective for driving OCM to a desired outcome. They further elaborated that female leaders may be better managers of change processes due to the task-oriented and stringent measures that they adopt. This is consistent with Statham's (1987, as cited in Moran, 1992), gender leadership model. However, it is inconsistent with the lines of Eagley and Johnson's (1987, as cited in Moran, 1992:482), position of female leaders being more empowering and participative.

6.8 SUMMARY OF CASE III KEY FINDINGS

Case III is a private sector company with over 2,000 employees based across different branches in Nigeria. Similar to Case II, it was observed from the interviews that there may be some communication gaps regarding the existence of change management departments or units that managed the post- and pre-effects of changes introduced into the organisation. Similar to Case II, it can further be drawn from the Case III respondents' comments that perhaps the name or responsibilities of the departments were not clearly defined and communicated to staff, as the respondents were not clear about the existence of such a department.

The organisation has also undergone several changes, such as the creation of new departments, changes in leadership, technological changes, structural and sectorial changes, administrative changes, cultural changes and changes in policy. According to the participants, the introduced changes were pre-planned in nature and were driven and managed by both male and female leaders. The subordinate respondents also spoke about changes not being effectively communicated, however proper orientation and education was provided on the rationale of the introduced changes. It can therefore be inferred that necessary measures were not taken to pre-inform or communicate with employees prior to the introduction of the implemented changes.

Respondents' (six out of eight) accounts of the reaction to the introduced changes and adopted strategies indicated a mixed outcome or reaction from the affected members of staff. This, they asserted, was a result of some of the changes being in favour of some staff over others (they made many references to technological change receiving a mixed reaction or outcome from those who were affected). More so, two out of eight respondents

stated that the introduced changes and adopted strategies had a negative reaction/outcome. According to Chineke, one of the male subordinates, the purported negative outcome was as a result of the nature of the changes that occurred and the inappropriate strategies that were adopted to manage the introduced changes. In retrospect, Chineke's view is not far removed from the premise of Belbin (1993), Clarke and Pratt (1985), Kirton (1976) and Senior and Fleming (2006), who stated that extreme care should be taken not to presume that the same leadership style can be adopted in all change situations. This is because a specific leadership style that might be suitable for a particular type of change may not be appropriate for another type of change.

When the respondents were asked whether they observed any differences in the way that both sexes lead and manage changes, a greater number (six out of eight) of the respondents in Case III answered that yes, they did, and that these differences were significant. However, the other two respondents replied that they did not notice any significant differences in the way that both sexes led and managed change. In addition, two common trends emerged whilst exploring the second objective (establishing and examining the differences and preferences in the way that men and women manage organisational change). Similar to previous cases, it was observed that the leaders' choice of leadership behaviour and style was influenced by certain factors such as the impact of corporate, national or sector culture, which dictated the strategies used, and also the followers' gender and behaviour, which had a possible impact on leadership preference and behaviour.

In addition, the respondents who attested that they observed significant differences in the way that both sexes led and managed organisational change processes, described the

styles predominantly adopted by female leaders as autocratic and transactional (mentioned by three out of six who observed gender differences). In essence, female leaders employed a mixture of transformational and transactional leadership styles, but they predominantly adopted core transactional leadership styles. The remaining three respondents who observed gender differences described the predominant male leadership style as democratic and transformational. As in Cases I and II, respondents in Case III further stated that the female leaders tended to adopt more stringent or autocratic patterns of leading, when compared to their male counterparts. This is not far from the stance of Moran (1992), who inferred that female leaders are yet to attain stereotypical leadership positions as there are certain prerequisites that must be met. Once female leaders have attained leadership positions, they are further expected to act like their male counterparts to successfully manage and lead organisations. As in the previous cases, a large proportion of the respondents (five out of eight) in Case III expressed the view that female leaders are better at effectively managing and leading change management processes in organisations due to their motherly and emotional empathic nature. However, a few of the respondents (two out of eight) deduced that both sexes would effectively manage changes in organisations if given an equal opportunity to do so.

This is the third of five cases where data was collected. In essence, two more cases from the public sector will be analysed and presented in Chapter 7, to increase the understanding of the area under study, and also to help with the cross-case analysis of the cases across the five cases.

7 CHAPTER 7: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF CASE IV AND CASE V (FEDERAL MINISTRIES)

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 6 presented the findings and discussions of Cases II and III, while this chapter continues with the analysis and presentation of findings from the semi-structured interviews conducted in Case IV (the Ministry of Construction) and Case V (the Ministry of Media Affairs). As in Chapters 5 and 6 and as shown in Table 21, the same themes will be discussed. All themes, categories and sub-categories will be analysed and discussed, along with some commentaries from the respondents who participated in the research.

Similar to the preceding Chapters 5 and 6, the layout here entails presenting findings from both cases in a systematic order. For example, the findings and discussions from Case IV are presented first, followed by the findings and discussions from Case V under the same themes, categories and sub-categories. However, there are some instances where there were repetitive findings from both cases; these findings are discussed and presented together under one category, to avoid a repetitive presentation. For example, the analysis on the change management department revealed the same findings; therefore, these are presented together in the same category.

Table 21: Final List of Themes, Categories and Sub-categories of Case IV and Case V

		Sections	Sub-sections
Case II and III Background Details	Case II and III Background Details	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respondents' Background 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Position/Role
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Age
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Length of Service
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cases II and III Background Details 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sector
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Change Management Department
T/L	Themes	Categories	Sub-categories
A	Change Types and Employed Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Types of Change 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initiators of Introduced Change(s)
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employed Strategies and Approaches 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outcome of Employed Strategies
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effect of Introduced Changes
B	Gender Leadership Differences and Preferences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender Leadership Differences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Influence of National & Sector Culture on Leadership Behaviour and Preferences • Influence of Followers' Gender & Behaviour on Leadership Behaviour and Preferences • Influence of Leaders' Personality on Leadership Behaviour and Preferences

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender Leadership Preferences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Male-Specific Preferences
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Female-Specific Preferences
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender-Effective Strategies 	
C	Leaders and Followers' Perception of the Impact of Gender Leadership Differences on OCM Outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Leaders' Perception of the Impact of Gender Leadership Differences on OCM Outcome 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Followers' Perception of the Impact of Gender Leadership Differences on OCM Outcome 	

7.2 CASE IV AND CASE V BACKGROUND DETAILS

This section has two sub-sections; the sector that Cases IV and V operate in and the existence of a change management department.

SECTOR OF CASES IV AND V

As in Chapters 5 and 6, the respondents at Cases IV and V were also asked to affirm the sector of the organisations. The respondents at Cases IV and V explained that the organisations, as federal ministries or parastatals, operate in the public sector.

Respondents at Case IV described the key areas of the ministry as the construction of civil engineering projects and public buildings. The ministry further monitors and facilitates the smooth flow of federal government projects, while making sure that all undertaken projects adhere to specified requirements.

Additionally, Case V publishes government bulletins on social media. They also conduct surveys, as it is a research and media office. They further rank ministries and evaluate the performance index of ministries. Essentially, they supervise ministries and publish their work, while conducting studies on the impact of some newly implemented government policies, such as the increase of the minimum wage and the salary pay gap.

CHANGE MANAGEMENT DEPARTMENT

It was realised from the previous chapter that Cases II and III did not make a significant effort to create and enforce departments responsible for managing the pre- and post-effects of changes introduced into those organisations. From the reviewed literature, this leads to negative or undesirable outcomes for change programmes in organisations (Creasey, 2013). Therefore, respondents from Cases IV and V were asked to affirm whether the organisations had a specific department to manage change management initiatives or processes. This was done to meet the overall purpose of this study, to contribute to the successful implementation of change processes in organisations and overcome the reported failure rate of change management interventions and processes in organisations (Daniel, 2011 and Sharma, 2006).

The descriptive case analysis revealed that all respondents from Cases IV and V confirmed that the organisation did not have a change management department that managed the changes introduced into the organisation. The respondents overtly explained that the

absence of a change management department or any related unit was due to the fact that the federal government had specified rules and regulations that guided the leadership and management of processes such as OCM. According to Jetta, *“No, there is no change management department... There are laid-down principles set by the government to guide changes processes and interventions”*.

In sum, the analysis from the federal ministries revealed that management did not deem it necessary to provide department or personnel responsible for managing and overseeing the pre- and post-effects of change. This was because change management leaders mostly managed and led based on implemented policies from the federal government, so leaders led and managed according to the book. This indicates the extent to which national or sector influences the management of organisational processes such as OCM. Furthermore, this means that the success and effectiveness of change processes in organisations depend on designed policies, which the respondents referred to as organisational laid-down rules or organisational set principles. It is critical for change management practitioners and actors to know who the policy makers are, if leaders and managers of change processes must lead and manage according to laid rules from a higher authority, as evidenced in this research.

7.3 RESPONDENTS OF CASE IV AND CASE V BACKGROUND DETAILS

As in the preceding analysis in Chapters 5 and 6, this section discusses the background details of the respondents and organisations that participated in the semi-structured interviews.

RESPONDENTS' BACKGROUND

The respondents' background details are presented in Tables 22 and 23, comprising their gender, age, position, change management status and length of service, for a deeper analysis of their comments. As in the other cases, management and some of the participants of Cases IV and V requested not to be identified by their names. Therefore, organisational names were assigned as the Ministry of Construction (Case IV) and the Ministry of Media Affairs (Case V). Also, the respondents were further pen-named as shown in Tables 22 (Case IV) and 23 (Case V).

Table 22: Case IV (Ministry of Construction) Participants' Background Details

Respondents' Identification	Gender	Status	Position	Age	Length of Service (Years)
Mr Ogunde	Male	Leader	Head of Construction	45	8
Mr Jetta	Male	Leader	Deputy Director of Construction	46	6
Mrs Irene	Female	Leader	Head of Human Resources	52	7
Engr. Jessica	Female	Leader	Permanent Secretary	56	6
Mr Joshua	Male	Subordinate	Personal Assistant	32	4
Mr Kenneth	Male	Subordinate	Receptionist	29	3
Mrs Tura	Female	Subordinate	Secretary	34	4
Mrs Veronica	Female	Subordinate	Administrative Officer	36	5

GENDER/SEX OF THE RESPONDENTS

Asking the respondents to confirm their gender was vital to the prime enquiry of this research, which entailed finding out both sexes' perceptions of the gender differences in organisational change leadership, as well as the impact of and link between gender and OCM.

As shown in Table 22, a total of eight respondents were interviewed in Case IV (the Ministry of Construction). In order to achieve the overall aim of this study, the sample population of Case IV comprised two male leaders and two female leaders, to ascertain the leaders' perceptions. In order to understand the subordinates' perceptions, two male and two female subordinates were recruited to participate in the research, thereby making a total of four male and four female respondents in Case IV. The same proportions for males/females and leaders/subordinates were applied to Case V, as shown in Table 23.

Table 23: Case V (Ministry of Media Affairs) Participants' Background Details

Respondents' Identification	Gender	Status	Position	Age	Length of Service (Years)
Engr. Temi	Male	Leader	Special Advisor	55	10
Engr. Musa	Male	Leader	Permanent Secretary	50	6
Mrs Patricia	Female	Leader	Assistant Head of Department	49	6

Mrs Nengi	Female	Leader	Permanent Secretary	47	6
Mr Jake	Male	Subordinate	Secretary	34	6
Mr Tolu	Male	Subordinate	Editor	36	4
Miss Treasure	Female	Subordinate	Receptionist	31	3
Mrs Galadima	Female	Subordinate	Welfare Officer	32	5

POSITION/ROLE OF RESPONDENTS

In relation to the position and key responsibilities of the respondents who participated in this research, Tables 24 and 25 describe the roles and responsibilities of the respondents from Cases IV and V. The rationale behind the presentation of these tables is to demonstrate the position and roles of the participants which may have impacted on their responses to the questions posed by the author.

Table 24: Description of Case IV Respondents' Roles and Responsibilities

R/ID	Respondents' Description of Roles and Responsibilities
Mr Ogunde	Is the head of the department of Case IV. He ensures that highway roads are properly designed and constructed to the engineering specification. He also supervises all civil engineering projects. He further ensures that the responsible ministry complies with specifications and makes sure that the quality of the undertaken projects is not compromised in meeting the desired expectations. He also facilitates the completion of all projects.
Mr Jetta	Is the deputy director of Case IV. Jetta designs and supervises most of the projects that take place in the department. He also designs proposals and vets them to secure construction contracts for the ministry. Jetta further explained that he supervises junior engineers and directs them on their duties and responsibilities.
Mrs Irene	Is the head of the human resources department in the ministry. Irene manages the workforce that administers benefits, pays employees and monitors and keeps track of all employees. Irene is further in charge of setting up a committee that manages sensitive change management issues such as OCM. Irene also evaluates departmental or employee performance and designs action plans for the improvement of the workforce.
Engr. Jessica	Is a permanent secretary of Case IV. Jessica is accountable to the commissioner, who is also known as the minister allocated to the ministry. Jessica's sole responsibility is to provide support and advice to the minister and to ensure that projects and policies are successfully implemented.
Mr Joshua	Is a personal assistant to the head of the Human Resources Department. Joshua's role involves the rendition of administrative support to the head of the Human Resources Department.
Mr Kenneth	Is a receptionist to the Construction Department, whose main duties are sorting and handing out mail and emails, attending to visitors' concerns and enquiries and directing clients to their requested destinations.

Mrs Tura	Tura stated that she is a secretary to the head of the Construction Department, performing secretarial duties in the ministry. Tura primarily renders administrative, clerical and diary managerial duties to the head of department.
Mrs Veronica	Veronica is an administrative officer who offers comprehensive administrative duties inclusive of financial management and budget control, procurement and contract or project administration.

Table 25: Description of Case V Respondents' Roles and Responsibilities

R/ID	Respondents' Description of Roles and Responsibilities
Engr. Temi	Is the head of Case V. He attends government functions and publishes government bulletins on social media. He further conducts surveys, as the ministry is a research and media office. He also ranks ministries and evaluates performance indexes and the performance ranking of offices. He also supervises ministries and publishes their works. In addition, he conducts studies on the impact of some government policies. He further supervises contracts and appraises their completion and level of mobilisation.
Engr. Musa	Is a permanent secretary who provides support and advice to the minister in charge of their ministry and is responsible for the successful implementation of ministerial projects and policies.
Mrs Patricia	Is the assistant head of department for social media and research. Patricia assists and supports the head of department and deputises for the head when required. Her main roles are to oversee and manage departmental budgets and expenditures and take initiatives in undertaking researches in a cost-effective approach or manner.
Mrs Nengi	Is also a permanent secretary who provides support and advice to the minister in charge. Nengi's primary function is to successfully implement projects and policies in the ministry.

Mr Jake	Jake is a male secretary to the head of social media and research ministry. Jake primarily renders administrative, clerical and diary managerial duties to the head of department.
Mr Tolu	Tolu explained that he is an editor who is primarily responsible for editing the content of research conducted by the ministry for publication and public viewing.
Miss Treasure	Is a receptionist. Treasure's main duties are sorting and handing out mail and emails, attending to visitors' concerns and enquiries and directing them and clients to their required destinations or offices.
Mrs Galadima	Is a welfare officer who works in the HR team. Galadima's key function in the ministry is taking responsibility for employee welfare or wellbeing.

AGE OF RESPONDENTS

It was realised that the majority of the workforce from Cases IV and V comprised older rather than younger employees, which is contrary to the cases from the private financial institutions, where the younger workforce dominated the older workforce. To gather this information, the respondents were asked to confirm their age and length of service with their current employer where the change was experienced and managed.

As shown in Table 22, the ages stated by the respondents in Case IV varied from 29 to 56 years, with the youngest of the interviewees being a male receptionist and the oldest a female permanent secretary. The inductive content and descriptive data analysis shows that Case IV had a mixture of both young and old employees, which was dominated by males. This was observed to be as a result of the nature of their jobs, which is mostly site-related within the construction industry.

Similar to Case IV, Table 23 illustrates that Case V also has an older workforce compared to the other cases from the health and private sectors. The workforce of the participants that participated in Case V ranged from 31 to 56 years old, with the youngest of the interviewees being a female receptionist and the oldest a male special advisor aged 55. Case V comprised a mixed aged workforce, dominated however by an older workforce when compared to the rest of the cases.

The thematic analysis showed that the respondents from both public-sector cases gave more detailed and clearer accounts compared to the other cases; this helped the study to achieve its aims and objectives. It can be speculated that this was due to the experience and age demographic of the organisational workforce that participated in the present study – the said older workforce had more experience and insights to share in relation to the researched area of gender differences in OCM.

LENGTH OF SERVICE

As indicated in Table 22, Case IV respondents' length of service varied from 3 to 8 years, with Kenneth, a male receptionist, having the shortest service, and Ogunde, the head of department, the longest. Similarly, the respondents' length of service at Case V varied from 3 to 10 years. Treasure, a female receptionist, had the lowest length of service and Temi, a special advisor, had the longest.

It was observed that participants within the public sector were more prepared to discuss their accounts of the change management experience in relation to gender differences that [may] exist in the management of organisational change. It can be argued that due to their experience and length of service in the organisations, most of the respondents' comments

may not have reflected signs of cultural, religious and value systems, which can be attributed to job insecurity within the African context (Oke, 2005).

7.4 THEME A: CHANGE TYPES AND EMPLOYED STRATEGIES

The respondents from Cases IV and V were asked to confirm and discuss the changes that took place in the organisations and the employed strategies or approaches to manage the introduced changes. This was done because this research involved organisations that have undergone change processes in recent times. It was observed that there was no parameter in the respondents' discussions that referred to 'recent changes' that had taken place in the organisations. Therefore, leaders from Cases IV and V were specifically contacted to confirm the recentness of the experienced changes. It was relayed by the leaders at Case IV that the discussed changes took place between one and eight years ago, while Case V's changes occurred – given their definition of recent – between one and five years ago.

Two categories are discussed under this theme; the types of change(s) that took place and the strategies and approaches that were employed to manage the introduced changes.

CATEGORY 1: CHANGE TYPES

The participants from the public sector experienced similar changes to those that occurred in Cases II and III. Three significant changes were experienced in Case IV (in the past 8 years) and Case V (in the past 5 years), as mentioned by the respondents. These are analysed, interpreted and presented in this section, and are not the respondents' direct comments. For example, one of the male leaders at Case IV, Ogunde (head of department), remarked upon the encountered changes thus:

A lot has happened in this ministry, the major changes I can recall were cultural and leadership changes that occurred as result of different leaders allocated by federal government to manage and lead this ministry.

***Change in Leadership, Culture and Administration** – The respondents explained that Cases IV and V are government ministries that always experience leadership or management restructuring, as people who head or lead the ministries are assigned to an office for a specific number of years. For example, they are assigned to lead or manage the ministry for 3 or 5 years and then they are moved to other ministries for another 3 to 5 years. Consequently, at the end of their tenure, new leaders are assigned to take over. This constantly leads to the culture of the organisations being altered during changes in leadership or management. The impact of the stated change in leadership is that each assigned head or leader introduces new means or ways of achieving the set objectives. Essentially, it was realised that changes in leadership led to changes in culture and administration. Jessica, one of the female leaders at Case IV, expressed the following:

Yes, we have encountered some changes. These were mostly changes in the usual pattern of working and the structure of the ministry due to a new head of ministry appointed into office as customary to the federal government.

As stated earlier, there were commonalities in the respondents' comments on the experienced changes in Cases IV and V. However, the inductive content and thematic analysis showed that respondents at Case V mentioned the creation of new departments as part of the changes that took place there, which was not mentioned by the Case IV respondents. According to one of the male leaders at Case V (Musa):

Ermeee! Yes, there have been a few changes here and there, significant amongst which I can identify are cultural changes and the addition of new departments in order to relieve staff of an excessive workload.

The creation of a new department, as mentioned by six out of eight respondents at Case V (the Ministry of Media Affairs) was explained as the addition of new departments or units to existing departments as a result of extra work functions or objectives.

SUB-CATEGORY 1: RESPONSIBLE INITIATORS OF INTRODUCED CHANGE(S)

The observed gender imbalance in organisations from the reviewed literature (Abrahamsson, 2002, Eagley, 1987, Linstead et al., 2005, Meyerson, 2000 and Tyler, 2000) led the researcher to gather data on this subject in order to ascertain whether there was a gender balance or imbalance in the committees that initiated and drove the implemented changes. Participants from Cases I, II and III strongly suggested that equal participation in OCM should be given to both sexes if the desired outcome was to be achieved. Consequently, this section aims to contribute to OCM processes by the development or proposition of a gender-inclusive methodology for managing organisational change processes. The findings from Cases IV and V in relation to the responsible initiators and drivers of implemented changes have been presented together, because the analysis revealed the same set of findings from this section.

When asked about the responsible drivers or initiators of the stated changes, all 16 respondents from Cases IV and V stated that the changes that took place in the organisations were set and initiated by the federal government, with a committee of both males and females. However, the committee comprised more males than females. Essentially, there appears to be a gender imbalance in the management groups that sets and implements changes in the organisations. From a critical point of view, it can be argued that women, especially in Africa, have always been under-represented in work and non-work situations. However, in recent times, there have been a few campaigns and

non-governmental movements to promote gender balance in organisations. According to Olukayode (2013), there has been a significant improvement in equal representation. However, this still falls short of equal representation by both sexes, leaving women vastly under-represented, especially given the gender-gap issues in Nigeria and other African countries. Olukayode's (2013) study further suggested that both sexes in organisations should be accorded the same privilege to lead and manage. This is not far removed from Skirstad (2009) and Mullany's (2007) stance, which was that in spite of the considerable developments that had been made in gender equality, a good number of women are still under-represented in organisations.

CATEGORY 2: EMPLOYED STRATEGIES

This category was set to achieve the first objective of this study, which reviewed the current trends, strategies and approaches adopted by change management practitioners and leaders for managing changes introduced into organisations.

When asked about the strategies or approaches adopted by leaders for managing the changes that occurred in Cases IV and V, participants at Case IV mentioned that leaders and managers did not specifically use personal strategies but adhered to organisational laid-down procedures that backed up the changes introduced into the organisation. However, one of the subordinate respondents also spoke about management applying exchange principles, also known as the carrot and stick approach, whereby they rewarded outstanding performance and punished underperformance from members of staff, probably as a result or effect of the introduced change(s).

Alternatively, respondents at Case V spoke about a range of strategies and approaches that were adopted to manage the implemented changes in the midst of organisational laid-down principles. The mentioned strategies are analysed and interpreted below and are not the respondents' direct quotes or names. Notwithstanding this, the respondents' direct quotes and commentaries will be provided where necessary.

Exchange Principles – Sometimes referred to as the carrot and stick approach, where leaders reward outstanding performance and punish lassitude or underperformance as a result of the introduced changes. This was mostly mentioned by the female respondents, both leaders and subordinates. According to Tura, one of the female subordinates at Case IV, *“In the midst of laid-down principles, management adopted the carrot and stick approach, where they rewarded performance and punished poor performance”*.

Counselling and Education Approach – Both leaders and subordinates affirmed that, throughout the course of the change process, leaders ensured that they constantly counselled staff, mostly those who were affected by the change process. This approach was mentioned by a significant number of the sample (six out of eight) in Case V, both male leaders and subordinates.

Effective Communication and Briefing – This approach involved informing and briefing the change recipients on the recent developments and further actions that might be taken to successfully drive and manage the introduced change. According to the participants, communication and briefings were done verbally and through memos. This was particularly mentioned by two of the male respondents. With regard to the reviewed literature, employee resistance may be low when employees have a good perception and

understanding of the change that is to be introduced or implemented (Dent and Goldberg, 1999).

Interestingly, the findings from Cases IV and V (especially Case IV) show that organisational management procedures and principles largely influenced the leaders' adoption of personal approaches to manage organisational change processes, especially compared to the health and private sectors. The above finding is congruent with Nazarian and Atkinson (2013), who argued that a leader's leadership behaviour, and their judgement and perception of the workplace, may be strongly affected by the national or sector culture of that organisation. This is because leaders are expected to lead according to the national or sector doctrine of their organisation. Furthermore, Merhrabani and Mohamed (2011) clarified that a leader's leadership style could depend on the sector or national culture of the organisation. For example, public sector organisations from developing countries prefer transactional leadership models, where decisions are often centralised and command-oriented.

However, some of the leaders adopted personal strategies, such as the carrot and stick approach, counselling, effective communication, education and training, etc., amidst the OCM laid-down rules. It was realised that within the same sector, some organisations adopted personal strategies to support the management of change processes and some organisations strictly adhered to laid-down rules. It can be construed from the participants' comments and Okafor's (2009) stance on job security in Africa that some of the respondents from the organisations (specifically Case IV) may have been reluctant to discuss vital information that revealed their leaders' partial compliance to organisational or departmental set rules.

SUB-CATEGORY 1 AND 2: OUTCOME OF THE INTRODUCED CHANGES AND EMPLOYED STRATEGIES

With regard to the effect of the introduced changes and the employees' reaction towards introduced changes in Case IV, the analysis indicated that four out of eight (predominantly male and female subordinates) stated that the outcome was successful and yielded a positive reaction from members of staff. This the respondents attributed to the laid-down principles that the leaders used to manage the introduced changes. In contrast to the male and female subordinates, all of the leaders (male and female, representing four of eight respondents) in Case IV commented that the changes had a mixed outcome or reaction from those who were affected by them. The majority of the leaders attributed this mixed outcome to the organisational laid-down rules set by the government. For example, Ogunde (male leader leader at Case IV) said:

...Because change processes and strategies were governed by laid-down principles, those who were affected by introduced changes expressed mixed reactions. There were instances where I should have applied approaches that I consider to be suitable but I could not do that, because specific change management approaches were explicitly stated to be used.

In Case V, concerning the effect of the introduced changes and the employees' reaction to them, the respondents stated that the adopted strategies were received either positively, negatively or with a mixed reaction by the members of staff who were directly affected by the changes. The inductive content and descriptive case analysis revealed that three out of eight respondents (two male leaders and one female leader) commented that some of the changes and the strategies adopted to manage them, had worked fantastically, due to the effective communication and counselling that management had provided in the course of the change process. Similarly, four out of eight respondents (2 female leaders, 1 male subordinate and one female subordinate) commented that the effect of the

introduced changes and the espoused strategies had a mixed reaction from the affected staff. According to Patricia, one of the female leaders at Case V:

The introduced change and employed strategies to manage them received a mixed reaction from members of staff. People just want to be static and do not want management to interfere with the normal way of doing things, so it received what I call a minute opposition. However, they amicably accepted that changes were programmed or ordered to be implemented from the federal government.

The findings above are not far removed from Idiagbon-Oke and Oke's (2011) inference of employees showing less receptive behaviour when proposed change programmes go against their normal routine of work. Besides this, one out of eight respondents, specifically one of the male subordinates, posited that some of the changes and adopted strategies had a negative outcome or effect because of the inappropriate or ineffective approaches adopted by management to manage the introduced changes. For example, Jake (male subordinate at Case V) said:

The changes introduced and the employed strategies had a negative and hostile effect on employees. This was as a result of ineffective or inappropriate measures that were employed by responsible personnel to manage the effect of the changes introduced.

Contrary to the findings from the private sector, subordinates who were recipients of the introduced changes were satisfied with how management or leaders had managed them, and considered the strategies as amazing and helpful. The descriptive and cross-case analysis clearly showed that out of eight subordinate respondents in the public sector, only one of them perceived the introduced changes and espoused strategies as being unsuccessful, thus leading to a mostly negative outcome or reaction from the affected

members of staff. Ironically, it was leaders who considered the outcome and effect of the adopted strategies to be mixed, rather than the subordinates, who were key recipients, as seen in the private sector findings. Again, this raises the concern that the subordinate respondents were playing ‘yes men’ in their comments to save their jobs, as reviewed in the extant literature (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011).

7.5 THEME B: GENDER LEADERSHIP DIFFERENCES AND PREFERENCES

As in previous cases, the findings from the second objective (establishing and examining the differences and preferences in the way men and women manage organisational change) were clustered into three categories under theme B. The categories (gender leadership differences in leading and managing organisational change, gender leadership preferences and gender-effective strategies) are discussed below.

CATEGORY 1: GENDER LEADERSHIP DIFFERENCES

The theoretical framework and a greater number of the respondents from the other cases established and confirmed that men and women have distinct styles of leading and managing change. Likewise, respondents at Case IV (the Ministry of Construction) and Case V (the Ministry of Media Affairs) were also asked if they observed specific differences in the ways that both sexes led and managed change processes in their respective organisations.

With regard to gender differences in Case IV, three out of eight respondents, particularly male and female leaders, were of the opinion that there was no gender difference in the way that both sexes led and managed change processes. The respondents explained that this was due to the fact that the leaders led and managed the introduced changes according

to organisational laid-down principles. According to Irene, one of the female leaders at Case IV, *“No, I never observed any differences in the way men and women leaders managed the implemented change. This was due to the reason that every leader followed organisational laid-down principles”*. Contrarily, five out of eight respondents (particularly male and female subordinates) indicated that they observed significant differences in the ways that both sexes led and managed change. For example, Kenneth, one of the male subordinates at Case IV, remarked: *“Yes, the way male leaders led changes massively differed from the female managers’ leadership styles”*.

From a critical perspective, it can be construed that male and female leaders led and managed change processes without realising that their innate gender traits influenced their leadership skills. While they considered themselves to be leading and managing according to set organisational policies and rules, the recipients or subordinates whom they managed still observed differences in their styles. A prominent speaker (Alobwede, 2014) remarked that often people do things without knowing that they do them. Instead they are observed by observers or recipients of the given situation.

Similar to Case IV, four out of eight respondents (particularly male leaders) in Case V believed that there were no gender differences in the ways that both sexes led and managed change processes. This they believed was because leaders did not lead and manage with personal strategies, but according to laid-down rules set by the government. In their view, such leaders did not have the freedom to apply a personal preferred leadership style. Musa, one of the male leaders at Case V said, *“No, I have not spotted any difference. We work based on laid-down principles”*. On the contrary, four out of eight respondents, particularly male and female subordinates, indicated that they observed

significant differences in the ways that both sexes led and managed changes in the organisation. According to Jake (male subordinate at Case V):

For me, I would say that gender differences existed in the way both sexes led and managed the changes that were introduced into the Ministry. Everybody had his or her own style of leadership and people tend to do things differently, whether there were set down rules or principles to conform to, while managing a particular situation.

The cross-case analysis revealed that the leaders of Case V did not observe any significant differences in the way that men and women led change processes. Conversely, the subordinates observed significant differences. Similar to Case IV, it can be construed that the leaders themselves led without knowing that they were influenced by their characteristics, leading to the differences identified by the subordinates.

Additionally, it can be construed that subordinates in the public sector conveyed information which they thought would enrich the findings of this research, since they knew that its prime focus was to find out the gender differences that exist in OCM. Also, it can be speculated that leaders, in order to secure their jobs, stated that they did not observe gender differences because of organisational laid-down principles, essentially conveying that they adhered to the rules and regulations set by the federal government. The findings above similar to the other cases brings to the forefront how much culture influences leaders preferred behaviour and approach in managing organisational processes such OCM. According to Nazarian and Atkinson (2013), leader's leadership behaviour, judgement and perception of the work place may be strongly affected by the national or sector culture of that organisation. In tandem, Kuada (2010) also posit that organisational leadership behaviours and styles may be culture-bound because corporate

culture provides a frame of reference and guidance on organisational expected behaviours.

CATEGORY 2: GENDER LEADERSHIP PREFERENCES

The effectiveness of OCM is contingent on change experience and exposure, senior management commitment and the distinct leadership styles of OCM leaders (Johnson, 1990). Thus, the study embarked on exploring the second objective of this study, which is to investigate the leadership styles or preferences adopted by both sexes. It was also established in the literature review that the distinct management or leadership styles adopted by both sexes play a vital role in the successful management of organisational change (Okafor, 2009, Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Paton and McCalman, 2008). Thus, there was a need to investigate the preferences and most suitable style adopted by both sexes. There are two categories discussed under this category: male-specific preferred styles and female-specific preferred styles.

SUB-CATEGORY 1: MALE-SPECIFIC PREFERENCES

The respondents, especially the male leaders at Case IV, implied that their leadership behaviour and patterns were influenced by how federal government wanted them to lead and manage the changes that were introduced into the organisation. Therefore, they did not observe any difference in the ways that they led, compared to their female counterparts, as a result of organisational laid-down rules.

In addition, the respondents at Case V were also asked to comment on the approaches predominantly adopted by male leaders when leading and managing change processes in organisations. Similar to the responses from Case IV, these respondents explained that

male leaders led and managed based on organisational laid-down principles. One of the male leaders said:

This is a government parastatals, where things are managed according to federal government's standards and procedures... The government does not take for granted any form of transition that takes place in the ministry.... I am involved in day-to-day management of changes that takes place here but I do not have much control on changes that took place and how they are expected to be managed. We always refer to the organisational handbook on how to manage such organisational processes...Realistically; there were no differences in the way we lead because we always apply expected means of managing introduced changes as inducted or told to do.

The above commentary is not far from Merhrabani and Mohamed (2011) and Nazarian and Atkinson's (2013) inference of how a leader's leadership preference can be influenced by national and sector dictates. However, two out of eight respondents (one female leader and one male subordinate) stated that male leaders applied command-oriented and autocratic leadership styles for managing and leading changes introduced into Case V. According to Tolu, one of the male subordinates at Case V: *"Male leaders adopt more direct and authoritative approaches"*. On the contrary, two out of eight respondents (male and female subordinates) stated that they observed male leaders predominantly adopting soft (democratic, laissez faire, paternalistic and transformational) measures to lead and manage change processes in organisations. For instance, Jake remarked that: *"Male leaders adopted more of the soft and paternalistic approaches"*.

The cross-case analysis from two Federal ministries, particularly Case V, is similar to the findings from Case III, which revealed that male leaders had a mixture of soft and hard leadership styles for leading and managing changes that occurred in the organisation.

SUB-CATEGORY 2: FEMALE-SPECIFIC PREFERENCES

According to Syed and Murray (2008), female leaders request rather than command workers to perform tasks and they tend to avoid aggressive behaviour and rude directness. Also, women prefer to use indirect means of communicationg certain strict procedures or instructions so that good relationships within and outside the workplace can be preserved (Giles and Coupland, 1991). In contrast, Jessica, one of the female leaders at Case IV remarked the following when asked about the leadership preference of female leaders:

I have observed that women leaders tend to be autocratic and aggressive in their leadership styles, whilst men appear to be subjective and softer in their leadership approaches... Through personal experience and having worked with male colleagues, I notice I am more aggressive and stern in my management pattern compared to what I observe with my male colleagues... They are usually more subtle and lenient with their employees....

Thus, the respondents' comments revealed that all female leaders led and managed in line with laid-down principles; however, most of them they tended to be more transactional and hard than male leaders; this is similar to the findings from the other cases and the reviewed literature (Statham, 1987), where female leaders are seen as more autocratic and male leaders as more democratic and participative. Similarly, Dastmalchian, Javidan and Alam (2001) and Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) conducted research in Iran and parts of Africa, and they reported that male leaders had a preference for transformational leadership approaches, whilst female leaders had a preference for transactional leadership approaches. On the contrary, the masculine approaches, which Helgesen's (1990) described as instrumental and instruction giving was ascribed as male leaders adopted approach. Furthermore, Helgesen's (1990) argues that women's work routines are more flexible, less mechanical and complex, and more interpersonal or humane oriented. However, Nazarian and Atkinson (2013) infer that leaders' leadership preferences or

styles are often influenced by the corporate and national cultures of their respective countries and companies, and that they are not entirely their choice of preferred leadership style. Essentially, leaders may not have the freedom to adopt a preferred pattern or style of leading due to the bureaucracy and centralisation of power in developing countries.

Furthermore, it was realised that female leaders in Case V had a mixture of hard and soft approaches to OCM leadership, contrary to what was observed in the other cases. The respondents explained that in the midst of set rules to govern the introduced changes, female leaders applied soft approaches (mentioned by one female leader and one male subordinate). Patricia, one of the female leaders at Case V, discussed female preferred leadership styles as follows:

The differences I spotted were quite enormous and significant. For instance, a woman is a mother and the way a woman would handle a child will be motherly and different from the way a father will handle the child. So it is, when applied to the management of organisational change. The woman always has a way of handling change management issues better as a result of numerous factors, e.g., empathic factors.

Conversely, two of the respondents (one female and one male subordinate) observed that female leaders adopted hard and stringent approaches to managing the introduced changes. Galidima (female subordinate at Case V) remarked:

From the male and female leaders that have been brought here, I observed that most female leaders tend to be more stringent and autocratic, whereas the male leaders displayed a more paternalistic and laissez faire approach, by adopting soft measures.

In sum, the analysis revealed that a large number of the public-sector respondents believed that male and female leaders applied a mix or blend of transformational and transactional leadership styles to lead and manage changes introduced into organisations.

This perhaps was a result of OCM laid-down rules to manage and lead changes introduced into the organisations.

CATEGORY 3: GENDER-EFFECTIVE STRATEGIES

Having discussed the gender differences that respondents observed in male and female leaders, they were further asked to describe which sexes' strategy or approach they deemed most effective for managing change in the organisation. The inductive content and descriptive case analysis revealed three recurring patterns or trends.

In Case IV, four out of eight respondents (one male leader, two female leaders and one female subordinate) declared that the strategies or approaches adopted by female leaders were more productive, fertile and successful, compared to the approaches adopted by male leaders. The concurring respondents explained that women are far better bosses compared to men, as a result of their ability to show empathy and to communicate effectively. According to one of the male leaders at Case IV:

Female bosses are far better than male leaders in managing most processes of change (e.g., welfare and the financial aspect of it). This is due to the empathic nature and the communication ability embedded in women. However, men have a better edge in working hard to achieve organisational goals. This is also because women are not as ambitious as men in achieving the desired result. (Jetta)

On the contrary, one out of eight respondents (a male leader) considered that male leaders' strategies were the most functional and suited to leading and managing change processes. The third realisation was that three out of eight respondents (2 males and one female) thought that both sexes' strategies were productive and successful for managing change processes, especially when leaders lead and manage based on laid-down rules. Joshua, one of the male subordinates at Case IV, stated that:

Due to the fact that the both sexes led based on laid-down directives, I cannot categorically state whose approach or style was most effective. Therefore, I can only infer that both sexes' leadership styles were very effective when given equal opportunity.

Similar to the findings from Case IV, half of the respondents from Case V, three female respondents and one male subordinate, considered that the approaches espoused by female leaders were more effective and productive. Their premise was attributed to the masculine or stringent approaches or strategies adopted by female leaders when leading and managing change. However, one of the male leaders (Musa), supported by male and female subordinates (three out of eight respondents), countered that the strategies they observed male leaders adopt were more effective and productive. Respondents in support of male leaders' approaches remarked that male leaders were paternalistic and soft in their change management leadership styles and approaches, contrary to the reviewed literature (Abrahamson, 2002, Ely and Meyerson, 2000, Reardon et al., 1998, Linstead et al., 1995, Moran, 1992, Paton and Dempster, 2008 and Senior and Fleming, 2006). Therefore, it was remarked that men were more successful in leading and managing organisational change. For example, Treasure, one of the female subordinates at Case V, remarked:

From my experience so far, I think male leaders and the paternalistic approaches that they adopt are more effective in driving and leading change processes to an anticipated outcome... No one likes to be pushed around and be happy about it, which is what I noticed the female leaders did with us.

In addition to the Case V respondents' perceptions of gender-effective strategies, one of the male leaders had a neutral opinion, and believed that both sexes' strategies and approaches were equally effective and productive. Essentially, in his view, both sexes can effectively and successfully lead organisational change programmes to the desired outcome.

The analysis showed that eight out of sixteen respondents from the public sector posited female leaders' strategies or approaches as being most effective in OCM. Conversely, four out of sixteen respondents thought that male leaders' strategies were most effective. Additionally, four out of sixteen respondents remarked that both sexes' strategies were effective and would yield the same result if they were given an equal opportunity to lead and manage change processes in organisations. Therefore, the cumulative analysis from the public sector (Cases IV and V) revealed that female leaders are more successful, suitable and effectual leaders and managers of organisational change, according to a large proportion of the participants. However, the respondents' comments appear to be somewhat controversial, because it was mostly female leaders and subordinates who remarked that female leaders and their adopted strategies were more successful and effective. It can be construed that the female leaders' and subordinates' responses on gender-effective strategies reflect an element of bias, as female workers declared their own sex to be more successful and effective, compared to their male counterparts.

The findings on gender-effective strategies were consistent with the results from the banking industries and the reviewed literature, which remarked that female leaders' approaches or strategies are more effective and successful, due to the stringent and masculine approaches adopted by female leaders. However, Schein's (1973) research on managerial sex role in organisations reveals that the characteristics associated with successful and effective managerial practices were reported to be expressed by male leaders rather than by women, due to male leaders' adoption of aggressive and transactional approaches (Schein, 1975 cited Schein 2001). Ironically, this was further contradictory to the reviewed literature (Linstead et al., 2005) which postulated that

female leaders and their adopted strategies were more effective and successful because of the democratic and participative leadership styles or approaches that women apply in managerial processes (Eagly, 1987, Eagly and Johnson, 1990, Gibson, 1993, Helgesen, 1995, Paton and Dempster, 2005 and Rosener, 1990). According to Syed and Murray (2008) and Rodriguez (2013), feminine values may also be possessed by men and masculine values may also be possessed by women. Hence, extant literature (Dastmalchian, Javidan and Alam, 2001, Kuada, 2010, Merhrabani and Mohamed, 2011, Nazarian and Atkinson, 2013 and Schneider and Littrell, 2003) argue that it is not the feminine attributes exhibited by women that disempower female leaders because there are men that also exhibit feminine attributes as in the case of the present study but still enjoy masculine hegemony.

7.6 THEME C: LEADERS' AND SUBORDINATES' PERCEPTION OF THE IMPACT OF GENDER ON OCM

Gender has been acknowledged as having a significant impact on management practice and theory (Paton and Demspter, 2002). In an effort to achieve the third objective of this study (ascertaining the impact that gender might have on the management of changes in organisations), both male and female leaders and subordinates in Cases IV and V were asked to discuss their perceptions of the impact of gender on OCM.

Two categories are discussed under this theme: leaders' and followers' perceptions of the impact of gender on OCM.

CATEGORY 1: LEADERS' PERCEPTION OF GENDER IMPACT ON OCM

Speaking of leaders' perception of the impact of gender on OCM, all Case IV leaders posited that gender had a major and significant impact on OCM. They explained that taking into consideration the impact of gender on OCM would help organisations to know where each sex's capability or strength could best be employed. When discussing the impact of gender on OCM, one of the Case IV male leaders articulated his opinion as:

Gender has a significant impact on the outcome of changes introduced into the organisation and therefore should be considered... This is because such consideration enables the organisation to strike a balance on the areas that each sexes' strengths can be best utilised and made good use of... (Jetta).

In the example of Case V, its leader respondents had varying perceptions of the impact of gender on OCM. In explanation, two out of four leaders (particularly female leaders) stated that gender has a moderate and major impact on the management of organisational change. On the contrary, one out of four leaders (a male leader) was of the perception that gender has no impact on change management practices. Musa, one of the male leaders, articulated that gender has no impact on OCM, instead postulating that such processes can be successfully accomplished irrespective of the sex of the person leading or managing them. Elaborating on this, he said:

No, I don't think gender has a role to play in the management of organisational change. Any goal or initiative that is clearly defined can be successfully accomplished by any leader, irrespective of the sex of the person leading or managing.

Furthermore, one out of four male leaders enunciated that gender might have an impact on OCM, but that this may depend on the type or nature of the introduced change. For instance, if it is a change that involves IT, then men should be considered. If the nature of the change involves employee welfare, women should be considered, because female

leaders are perceived to be better managers or leaders of changes that involve welfare.

According to Temi:

I would say that a gender impact would depend on the type of change that will be effected. For instance, if it involves a change in human welfare, gender can be considered, but if it is a change that involves IT, then men should be considered. Therefore, gender can be considered or will only have a role dependent on the particular change introduced.

Similarly, Schimmoeller (2010) posits that the survival of an organisation ultimately depends on the leaders' responsiveness and adaptability, and their ability to adopt an appropriate leadership style that suits the nature or type of the change being introduced, and the emotions and personal characteristics of their subjects. This finding was evident in the reviewed literature, where women were posited as being effectual and successful leaders and managers of welfare-related change (Eagly, 1987, Eagly and Johnson, 1990 and Gibson, 1993).

The public-sector leaders' perceptions of the impact of gender on OCM were quite divergent from the findings realised from the private-sector. In explanation, the public sector female leaders acknowledged that gender undeniably impacts on the desired outcomes of organisational change processes, which is contrary to the perception of the private sector female leaders. However, the public sector's female leaders' premise was evidenced in the reviewed literature, which revealed gender as having a significant impact on OCM and career progression (Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Eagley and Johnson, 1990). Male leaders from the public sector, in opposition to the female leaders, postulated that organisational change processes can be successfully accomplished irrespective of the sex of the person leading them. Additionally, male leaders stated that even if there were a gender impact on OCM, its impact might depend on the nature or type of the introduced

change. With regards to the reviewed literature, the male leaders' perceptions of the impact of gender on OCM was consistent with the stance of Senior and Fleming (2006) and Reardon et al. (1998), who averred that the impact of gender on organisational change ultimately depended on the type or nature of the implemented change.

CATEGORY 2: FOLLOWERS' PERCEPTION

Similar to the previous category, this section discusses the responses from the male and female subordinates of Cases IV and V, in order to achieve the third objective of this study.

The thematic template and cross-case analysis revealed three out of four subordinates (males and females) at Case IV considered that gender had a major impact on OCM.

According to Joshua, one of the male subordinates:

As stated earlier, due to the fact that gender has a significant link and role to play in OCM, I believe it definitely would have a huge impact on its success or failure. Therefore, change management practitioners and consultants should strongly consider or bear in mind gender-specific solutions or management when designing the strategies/approaches in managing changes in organisations.

Conversely, one of the female subordinates (Tura) at Case IV was of a contrary perception, and did not believe that gender had an impact on OCM. She expressed her perception of the impact of gender on OCM as follows: *"When public service rules apply, I don't see gender having an impact. It therefore will make no sense for gender to be considered when designing change management strategies"*.

Tura attributed her premise of the absence of a link between gender and OCM to the organisational or federal government laid-down rules for the management of

organisational change processes. Speculatively, the divergent findings in the subordinates' perceptions could be attributed to personal differences in perception, as the study enquired into individual perceptions of the impact of gender on OCM.

In addition, Case V's subordinates' perceptions of the impact of gender on organisational management showed that all of them asserted that gender has an impact on OCM, classifying the impact as moderate and major. The subordinate respondents stated that there are undeniable differences in the ways that both sexes lead and manage change processes in organisations. Therefore, the application of both sexes' strategies and approaches might contribute to the successful outcome or management of organisational change programmes. Consequently, the respondents strongly suggested that change management practitioners, agents, academics and consultants should consider or bear in mind gender-specific solutions or management when designing strategies or approaches to manage organisational change. However, one of the male subordinates, in support of the male leaders, posited that the stated impact may depend on the nature of the introduced change. This is in line with Schimmoeller's (2010) stance on the impact of gender, stating that it depends on the nature or type of the change that is being introduced, and the emotions and personal characteristics of the subjects. Speculatively, gender would only have a significant impact if it is a change that requires the skills or capabilities of both sexes, as repeatedly mentioned by the respondents. For example, one of the male subordinates explained the impact of gender on OCM as:

I believe that the impact of gender on OCM will largely depend on the type of change that is being enacted. For instance, in an unplanned and dramatic change that involves a lot of communication and welfare of staff that would require the presence of both sexes, then I believe gender might have a huge impact. Hence, it should be strongly considered. (Jake)

7.7 SUMMARY OF CASE IV KEY FINDINGS

The changes that occurred in Case IV were pre-planned and there was effective communication prior to and after the introduction of the changes. Also, the changes were set and initiated by the federal government, which comprised more male leaders than female. Therefore, there appears to be a dearth of female representation in federal government, where decisions are made and enacted. The findings from the interviews conducted in Case IV indicated that management did not see the need to provide department or personnel responsible for managing and overseeing the pre- and post-effects of the changes introduced into the organisation. A greater number of respondents in Case IV, particularly the subordinates, considered that the effect of the introduced changes and the outcomes of the adopted strategies were positive and successful. They deduced that the successful or positive outcome of introduced changes was the result of effective strategies or approaches adopted by the management. Additionally, the leaders, both males and females, considered that the outcome and effect of the changes and adopted strategies were effective. However, they believed that the outcome or effect stirred a mixed reaction in those who were affected by the changes.

Additionally, the participants in Case IV had a mixed perception of gender differences that exist in the management of organisational change. Fifty per cent (four out of eight) of the respondents considered that gender did not have a significant influence on organisational change, due to the fact that leaders led and managed the introduced changes based on federal government laid-down principles. In the literature, this was attributed to the effect or influence of national or sector dictates on leaders' leadership

behaviour and patterns (Nazarian and Atkison, 2013 and Dorfman et al., 2006). The rest of the respondents (four out of eight) were of the opinion that gender differences exist in the management of organisational change. In elaboration of the identified differences, a greater number (seven out of eight) remarked that most of the male leaders predominantly adopted transformational approaches – such as soft and democratic leadership styles – to manage changes introduced into the Ministry, while female leaders adopted hard, rather than soft, transactional approaches to manage and lead. This was grossly contradictory to the reviewed literature (Abrahamson, 2002, Ely and Meyerson, 2000, Kathleen et al., 1998, Linstead et al., 1995, Moran, 1992, Paton and McCalman, 2008 and Senior and Fleming, 2006).

Speaking of gender-effective strategies, half of the respondents (four out of eight) considered the predominant strategies adopted by the female leaders as being most effective. The respondents therefore situated women as the most effective, successful and functional managers of organisational change. This finding however is contrary to the lines of Linstead et al., (2005) and Tyler (2005), who situated men as the primary managers of change and most effective in managing and leading it. Notwithstanding this, one of the respondents also deduced the predominant soft-oriented approaches adopted by male leaders as being most effective. The rest of the respondents considered both sexes as effective managers of organisational change, when given an equal opportunity to lead and manage change processes.

One of the main findings of this case was the affirmation of the impact of gender on OCM by the respondents, as also confirmed by the other three discussed cases (I, II and III). All the leaders considered gender as having a major and significant impact on OCM. One of

the notable things that came up in the course of the analysis was some of the respondents' advice on taking into consideration the impact of gender, as it would help organisations or management to know where each sex's capability or strength can be best utilised. Conversely to what was mentioned by the female subordinates from the previous cases, one of the female subordinates in Case IV considered gender as not having an impact on the management of change in the organisation. She emphasised that the non-impact of gender on OCM was as a result of public service laid-down rules interfering with leaders' choice of leadership style.

7.8 SUMMARY OF CASE V KEY FINDINGS

As similar to Case IV, the changes that occurred in Case V were pre-planned and effectively communicated to members of staff prior to and after the introduction of changes. As in Case IV, changes were set and initiated by the federal government, which comprised more male than female leaders. Essentially, female leaders have not been fairly represented in decision-making positions. It was realised that the management of Case V did not see a need to provide a department or personnel responsible for managing and overseeing the pre- and post-effects of the changes introduced into the organisation, because there were laid-down rules to manage and lead any implemented changes.

The participants had mixed perceptions of the outcome of the introduced changes and adopted strategies. A significant number (seven out of eight respondents) commented that the introduced changes and adopted strategies yielded a positive and mixed reaction from members of staff. However, one of the male subordinates had a contrary opinion, which was that the introduced changes and adopted strategies had a negative outcome because of the ineffective or inappropriate measures employed to manage the changes.

Similar to the realisation from Case IV, the Case V respondents had a mixed perception of the differences that might exist in the management of organisational change. Half of the respondents (four out of eight) were of the opinion that gender differences did not exist in the management of organisational change, due to laid-down ministerial or government principles that governed the management of organisational change. On the other hand, the rest of the respondents (50 per cent) asserted that they observed gender differences in the way that both sexes led and managed the changes that took place in the organisation. For example, two of the respondents asserted that male leaders predominantly adopted soft and democratic approaches to managing the changes that were introduced into the Ministry. On the contrary, two different respondents articulated that male leaders predominantly adopted hard and command-oriented strategies to manage and lead changes that took place in the organisation. Furthermore, it was stated that Case IV female leaders employed a mixture of both hard and soft approaches to OCM leadership, contrary to the observations in the other cases.

With regards to the most effective gender strategies adopted by both sexes, half of the respondents considered female leaders' predominant strategies and approaches to be the most effective and productive. They explained that the effectiveness of female leaders' approaches was due to the stringent and autocratic measures adopted by female leaders when leading and managing organisational change. However, it is worth noting that three of the respondents considered that male leaders and their adopted strategies were the most effective in driving organisational change to the desired outcome.

Furthermore, six of eight of the responds from Case V articulated that gender has a major and moderate impact on OCM practices. Therefore, one of the main findings of this case

was that a large number of the respondents in Case V confirmed that gender had a major or significant impact on change management practices. However, two of the respondents mentioned that the impact might be subtle or minute.

All of the features or elements realised in this and the other cases contributed immensely to achieving the aims and objectives of this study. The next chapter presents and interprets the cross-case analysis that examined the themes, similarities and differences across the five cases.

8 CHAPTER 8: CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE FIVE CASES

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous three chapters presented an analysis and discussions of the findings from the five organisational cases. This chapter presents an interpretation and discussion of the findings from the cross-case analysis, which compares similarities and differences across the five cases. The undertaken cross-case analysis amalgamated the results of the study from the organisational cases to draw conclusions that aim to assist with developing or implementing successful change management practices in developing countries such as Nigeria.

As stated in Chapter 4, this study adopted a variable-oriented cross-case analysis where themes, reiterated trends and patterns across the organisational cases of the study were sought and analysed. Also, a cross-case analysis often includes a visual display of similarities and differences across cases, according to Mathison (2005). Therefore, the chapter contains a visual display of tables to illustrate similarities and differences realised from the analysis of the five organisational cases.

The table below is a tabular overview or summary of the cumulative findings from the five organisational cases in relation to theme A.

Table 26: Overview of Theme A Aggregate Findings

THEMES AND CATEGORIES		CASE I MEDICAL HEALTH CENTRE	CASE II BANKING INSTITUT -ION	CASE III BANKING INSTITUT -ION	CASE IV FEDERAL MINISTRY	CASE V FEDERAL MINISTRY
OCM Department		YES ✓	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Theme A	Change Types and Employed Strategies	Encounter- ed Changes	Encounter- ed Changes	Encounter -ed Changes	Encounter- ed Changes	Encounter -ed Changes
Types of Change		Dramatic Infrastruct- -ural Changes	Structural and Leadership Change	Change in Leadership and Manage- ment	Cultural Changes	Cultural Changes
			Changes in Reward System	Diversific- ation		Change in Leadership and Manage- ment
		Creation of New Depart- ments	Technolog- ical Change	Administ- rative Changes	Change in Leadership and Manage- ment	Administ- rative Changes
		Administ- rative Change	Diversific- ation	Technolog- ical Changes		
		Policy Change				

		Structural changes	Cultural Changes	Cultural Changes	Administrative Changes	Creation of New Departments
			Changes in Policy	Structural and Sectorial Changes		
			Administrative Change	Changes in Reward System		
			Political Changes	Change in Policy		
			Demographic Changes	Creation of New Departments		
Sub-categories	Drivers of Change	Male and Female Leaders but with Gender Imbalance	Male and Female Leaders but with Gender Imbalance	Male and Female Leaders but with Gender Imbalance	Male and Female Leaders but with Gender Imbalance	Male and Female Leaders but with Gender Imbalance
	Nature of Change	Planned with Effective Communication	Planned with Partial Communication	Planned with no Communication	Planned with Effective Communication	Planned with Effective Communication
Employed Strategies or Approaches		Organisational Laid-Down Rule	Carrot and Stick Approach	Morning Briefings and Change Awareness	Organisational Laid-Down Rule	Organisational Laid-Down Rule

		Carrot and Stick Approach		Effective Communication	Counselling and Education		
					Effective Communication and Briefing		
		Counselling and Education	Counselling and Education	Counselling and Education	Carrot and Stick Approach	Effective Communication	
		On-the-job Training	Train the Trainer	Train the Trainer		Counselling and Education	
		Effective Communication and Briefing	Stupid-Idea Approach	Departmental Laid-Down Rules		Carrot and Stick Approach	Carrot and Stick Approach
				Departmental Laid-Down Rules			
				Effective Communication			
		Sub-categories	Outcome of Employed Strategies	Successful	Mixed Outcome	Mixed Outcome	Successful
Effect of Introduced Changes	Positive		Negative	Negative	Positive	Positive	

8.2 CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS OF OCM DEPARTMENT

The reported limitation in OCM success can be somewhat attributed to the fact that most organisations do not have specific departments and trained specialists to handle and manage changes introduced into them (Abrahamson, 2002, Creasey, 2013, Daniels, 2011, Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Sharma, 2006). The cross-case analysis revealed that Cases II and III may not have made a substantial effort to clearly communicate the existence of departments or personnel responsible for managing and overseeing the pre- and post-effects of the changes, as evidenced by the mixed comments and non-awareness of the existence of such departments in the organisation. However, a few (four out of sixteen) of the respondents from Cases II and III mentioned that the organisations did not have any specific office called a change management department, but that instead they had units called transformation or monitoring units that managed or monitored the outcome of organisational change programmes. The above findings were also similar to the assertions of Case I respondents, who mentioned that Case I had an outsourced department or unit that managed the post- and pre-effects of organisational change proceedings. However, this was not specifically called the OCM department but rather the service commission unit. As discussed in the previous analysis chapters, it can be construed that there were departments or units put in place to manage implemented changes. However, staff may not have been aware of them, perhaps because it was an outsourced unit or department that managed the post and pre-effect of changes introduced into the organisation. Also, the stated findings could be attributed to a lack of communication between management and members of staff, where management did not

clearly communicate the existence of such units or departments. This speculation emerged as a result of the followers' predominant comments that depicted the absence of a change management department. For instance, Wolo, one of the male followers at Case I, said:

Heads of department call every member of their departments and brief them on detailed information of what changes they should expect and there are usually follow up departmental meetings to know how the introduced changes have been going.

Similar to Cases II and III, it was realised that Cases IV and V also did not have any department or unit that handled OCM processes. Notwithstanding this, a number of the respondents attributed the absence of a change management department to laid-down principles set by federal government or management to guide the change processes and interventions that took place in the organisations. According to Temi, one of the male leaders at Case V:

No, there is no change management department specifically created to manage change management programmes. There are laid-down principles set by federal government to instruct leaders on management of implemented changes.

The findings above are a strong indication of the influence of policy makers and corporate or sector culture on leaders' freedom of management style. This is not far removed from Nazarian and Atkinson's (2013) inference on how national and sector culture interfere with and affect leaders' choice of leadership style in organisations. Thus, organisational change policy makers and the involved government must consider other influential factors, such gender leadership differences that could positively or negatively influence the outcome of adopted strategies to manage organisational changes.

8.3 RESPONSIBLE INITIATORS OF INTRODUCED CHANGES

The cross-case analysis indicated that male and female leaders drove and initiated the changes that occurred in the organisations. However, there was a gender imbalance across the five organisational cases, regarding the personnel who initiated and implemented the introduced changes. It was realised that the committee that initiated and implemented the occurring changes comprised fewer females than males, which was portrayed as customary within the African context, according to some of the respondents.

Consistent with the reviewed literature, female workers have always had significant success in lower and middle management positions, but they have experienced less success in top management positions (Adichie, 2013, Moran, 1992 and Rivers, 1991). Similarly, Parson and Priola (2013) infer that an organisational culture that is based on hierarchical systems is most often created on sets of values and beliefs that define gender roles and stereotypes, and that tend to disadvantage women in their managerial careers. Furthermore, Min Toh and Leonardelli (2012) argue that women are mostly under-represented historically when compared to their male counterparts in managerial positions. Min Toh and Leonardelli (2012) provide some cultural explanations for women's under-representation in leadership positions in the literature. They argue that gender stereotype and principal issues may be deeply rooted in differences in gender roles and values. This can be attributed to the cultural tightness of different counties and organisations, whereby the strengths and values of organisational norms historically place men in significant leadership positions over women (Min Toh and Leonardelli, 2012). They postulate that societies that have tighter cultures, as reviewed in the literature, may

require fewer women representatives in top managerial positions. However, it is worth noting that findings from other African gender and leadership studies report some significant improvements in female representation in managerial positions. For instance, Olukayode's (2013) research on the women and leadership paradigm in Nigeria revealed that Nigeria and other African countries have experienced a significant improvement in gender equality in leadership. For example, Makinde (2016) reports that the Nigerian senate has recently proposed a gender and equal opportunity bill, aimed at promoting equal rights for women and men, and the advancement and developments of all persons in Nigeria.

However, a large number of women are still under-represented, especially with the effect of gender gap issues in Nigeria and other African countries. Similarly, Ely and Meyerson (2000) and Skirstad (2009) assert that evolutionary or incremental changes in organisations brought gender equality into the limelight, both in Western and non-Western countries, although there is still a gross gender imbalance in organisations, where women remain under-represented. In addition, Skirstad (2009) argues that the struggle for gender equality has not yet been completely won. In line with Ely and Meryeson's (2000) proposition, Skirstad (2009) also proffers Pettigrew's contextual approach to managing organisational change. The approach suggested by Skirstad is ideally meant to help change leaders and practitioners to assist and eradicate workplace gender imbalance. Skirstad proposes this can be achieved by questioning the content, context and process of organisational change, and that overhauling these processes might provide answers to the gender imbalance questions in organisations (Skirstad, 2009).

Conversely, it is also interesting to note that the rationale for the stated gender imbalance observed from the cumulative analysis of this study was as a result of the nature of the industry. For instance, a good number of the respondents at Case IV repeatedly explained that the nature of their work was masculine-oriented (construction work), that is, typically seen as work for men. Consequently, this implies that the nature of their work tends to attract more males than females, both at senior and lower management, which therefore shows evidence of women's under-representation. This is not far removed from the lines of Sinclair (1994), who argued that organisational environments and culture are often characterised by a masculine domain that not only comprises men, but is also dominated by male-oriented values, norms, symbols and operations. Consequently, this creates barriers to the maximum participation of women (Hood and Koberg, 1994).

8.4 THEME A: ADOPTED STRATEGIES TO MANAGE INTRODUCED CHANGES

There were quite a number of overlaps in the strategies adopted by leaders for managing organisational change across the five cases. The approaches mentioned by the participants were the same as those proposed by Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) in the reviewed literature. The strategies highlighted by the participants were education, counselling, and a constant awareness of the change process and the need for it. Also, important parts of the adopted strategies were effective communication and exchange-principle approaches (performance was rewarded and underperformance was managed mostly via punishment). Furthermore, it was realised that Case II adopted an approach (Stupid-idea Approach) that was not adopted by the other cases. The Stupid-idea Approach was

described by the participants at Case II (mentioned more by the leaders) as an approach where management involved members of staff in the decision-making process of the introduced change. This was mostly done by welcoming any sort of idea that was meaningful from lower members of staff. Suggestions were collated and meaningful suggestions/ideas were incorporated into the change management decision-making process. The stated strategy was congruent with Olufemi's (2009) assertion that employee participatory approaches in the decision-making process have a positive impact on the success of change initiatives and interventions in organisations.

It was further realised that Cases II and III adopted a train-the-trainer approach, where some employees were sent to management training centres for the purpose of acquiring skills and knowledge on the proposed change. Staff trained on the successful completion of the training returned and trained the rest of workforce on the acquired knowledge, skills and competence. It was again observed that Case III and Case V provided morning briefings and change awareness, where leaders met with subordinates and educated them on the need and relevance of the introduced changes. The aforementioned strategies are very important, as proper orientation or education of the change programme, and employee involvement and participation in the decision-making process, are essential ingredients of the patriarchal and paternalistic culture of Nigeria, and they could lead to success in change programmes (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta 2004).

Another significant overlap across the five cases in this theme was the use of organisational or departmental laid-down principles, where leaders did not apply a personal or preferred strategy but rather adhered to laid-down guidelines and principles

on managing organisational change processes. Case IV appeared to have been mostly affected by rules and guidelines given by management to guide the management of organisational change processes. The participants articulated that leaders and managers did not specifically use personal strategies, but rather led and managed based on organisational laid-down procedures that backed up changes introduced into the organisation. This may be interpreted as the participants being discrete about discussing information that would reveal leaders' partial compliance to organisational or departmental set rules. Notwithstanding, this raises the concern that organisational change leaders' freedom of management and leadership style may be constrained by corporate, national and sector culture. In support of this view, Merhrabani and Mohamed (2011) claim that leaders' leadership behaviour is dependent on the national, corporate or sector culture of that specific organisation, sector and county.

8.4.1 COMMUNICATION AND OUTCOME OF INTRODUCED CHANGES AND ADOPTED STRATEGIES

With regards to the nature and communication aspect of the introduced changes, respondents at Cases I, IV and V described the changes that took place as strategically pre-planned and effectively communicated to members of staff prior to their introduction. Also, there was constant communication during and after the implementation of these changes. Similarly, changes in Cases II and III were also strategically pre-planned but were not effectively communicated. The respondents explained that management planned the changes that took place in the organisation but their communication aspect was ignored, as purported by the subordinate respondents who were recipients of the introduced changes into both organisations. The cumulative findings from the cross-case

analysis of Cases IV and V revealed that effect of the implemented changes and adopted strategies were mixed; some received a negative reaction and outcome, with some aspects of the introduced changes meeting employee opposition, especially with technological or innovative change. This was deduced to have been as a result of the negative perceptions of the introduced changes, such as cashless policy, AHC and flexible work practices, which led employees to be less receptive to these changes. Okafor (2007) emphasises that employees are more likely to welcome and accept introduced changes if an organisation's workforce is well managed and trained on new methods of work operations, and if communication is good. Based on the findings of the present study, this is an essential aspect that organisations, especially Cases IV and V, need to improve on if the desired OCM outcomes are to be attained.

Gender-based organisational patterns pose threats to the successful implementation of OCM (Raineri, 2009 and Todnem, 2005). Therefore, in order to achieve an OCM desired outcome, it is crucial to understand the dynamics and outcome of adopted OCM strategies (Abrahamson, 2002). Further research (Paton and Dempster 2002) infers that change initiatives certainly will not be complete without proper implementation. The outcome of the introduced and adopted strategies was described by the majority of the respondents at Cases I, IV and V as fantastic and successful, as they yielded a positive outcome in the sense that they felt most of the introduced change(s) made them better staff and people. Thus, the strategies employed to manage the introduced changes were very helpful and successful. However, a few of the respondents further mentioned that some of the introduced changes and adopted strategies still met with a mixed reaction and resistance

from members of staff who were affected by the changes introduced. For example, one of the female leaders stated that:

“Another notable change that met resistance was the issue of policy change in the promotion of staff... Where staff were promoted based on qualification and not length of service, as it used to be. Those affected by the change were very displeased with the change, thereby opposed it” (Umana).

Umana’s position was consistent with the propositions from the reviewed literature, which asserted that signs of resistive behaviour among employees may be due to the potential impact of change programmes, resulting from their fear of the unknown and the actual fact that change programmes do not tally with their normal way of work (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011).

In contrast, the respondents in Cases II and III recounted that the introduced changes and adopted strategies received mixed reactions and resulted in negative outcomes. The respondents attributed this negative outcome to the inappropriate strategies or approaches that were adopted to manage the introduced changes. In retrospect, the aforementioned findings are not far removed from the suggestions of Belbin (1993), Clarke and Pratt (1985), Kirton (1976) and Senior and Fleming (2006) that extreme care should be taken not to presume that the same leadership style can be adopted in all change situations. In addition to the above, Wanberg and Banas (2000) add that employees may not be compliant or may resist organisational change programmes if there is a perceived ineffective management of organisational change. However, from the researcher’s vantage point, it can be argued that the above assertion may not be applicable to less-developed countries such as Nigeria. According to Idiagbon-Oke and Oke (2011), an ineffective management of change may not be associated with aggressive resistive

behaviour or opposition from staff in some cases due to job insecurity issues. Interestingly, their inference was disproved by the recipients at Case I, who openly opposed changes in the promotion policy that was introduced in the organisation, according to the participants. According to Oke (2005), some employees tend to have reservations or mixed feelings towards changes that are innovative in nature; these Adebayo (2014) refers to as lethargic employees, who are not interested in innovation, irrespective of the benefits that it might bring.

Also, it was realised in Cases II and III that the introduced changes received a mixed reaction or outcome. This was explained as some members of staff being positive and receptive towards the introduced changes, whilst others were lukewarm, but could not overtly oppose them or voice their concerns. Such a reaction was classified as resigned compliance (Chreim, 2006) and an apathetic reaction, where there are behaviours such as inaction, distance and lack of interest in the usual work routine (Coetsee, 1999). The respondents repeatedly cited technology – which they described as an innovative change – as one of the prime reasons for the mixed and negative reaction or outcome. Also, it is interesting to note that such a reaction is not entirely new or strange, as it was established in the research conducted by Idiagbon-Oke and Oke (2011) on AHC and flexible work practices in local Nigerian firms. They established that employees may be less receptive or have mixed feelings towards change if there is a perceived negative impact of the introduced change. In spite of the negative and mixed perceptions about the introduced changes and adopted strategies, a few of the staff were positive about them. The findings of this theme were consistent with those from Idiagbon-Oke and Oke's (2011) study,

which suggests that organisational change is likely to attract a positive outcome or compliance where top management is perceived to manage organisational change processes effectively. However, it is also worth noting that change resistance may be rare or may encounter resigned compliance as a result of the role of cultural and social value systems and religious factors in African societies, as reviewed in Chapter 3.

8.5 THEME B: GENDER LEADERSHIP DIFFERENCES AND PREFERENCES

Table 27 presents a summary of the findings realised from the cross-case analysis of objective two, which examined the differences and preferences in the ways that male and female managers lead and manage organisational change processes in non-Western countries such as Nigeria, where the data was collected.

Table 27: Overview of Theme B Aggregate Findings

THEMES AND CATEGORIES		CASE I MEDICAL HEALTH CENTRE	CASE II BANK- ING INSTIT- UTION	CASE III BANK- ING INSTIT- UTION	CASE IV FEDERAL MINISTRY	CASE V FEDERAL MINISTRY
Theme B	Gendered Leadership Differences and Preferences					
Gender Leadership Differences		4 out of 8 voted YES	YES ✓	YES ✓	4 out of 8 voted YES	4 out of 8 voted YES
		4 out of 8 voted NO			4 out of 8 voted NO	4 out of 8 voted NO
Gender Leadership preferences						
Sub-categories	Male-Specific Preference	Transformational and Laissez Faire Style	Transformational and Laissez Faire Style	3 out of 8 for a Hard-oriented Style	Transformational and Laissez Faire Style	2 out of 8 for a Hard-oriented Style
				3 out of 8 for a Soft-oriented Style		2 out of 8 for a Soft-oriented Style
	Female-Specific Preference	Transactional and Autocratic Style	Transactional and Autocratic Style	Transactional and Autocratic Style		Mix of Transformational and

						Transact- ional
Gender-Effective Strategies		Female Leaders	Female leaders	Female Leaders	Female Leaders	Female Leaders

Cases I, IV and V had a 50/50 split on the perception of gender differences in the management of organisational change, as four out of eight respondents in each of the specified cases mentioned that they did not observe differences in the ways that both sexes led and managed the change processes. The other half of the sample population in Cases I, IV and V stated that they observed significant differences in the ways that both sexes led and managed change processes in the organisations. This was consistent with the reviewed literature, which stated that there are undeniable differences in male and female leadership and management styles (Adichie, 2013 and Eagley, 1987, as cited in Moran, 1992). Similarly, Syed and Murray (2008) argued that men and women generally have different communication, negotiation and management strategies that also affect the behavioural patterns of both sexes within the workplace. The cross-case analysis also revealed an overlap in the factors that contributed to the observed differences in Cases I and IV, where the respondents attested to observing gender differences in male and female organisational leadership styles. These differences were attributed to the impact of emotional empathy and the psychological characteristics of leaders, and the gender and behaviour of the followers, which influenced leaders' behaviour and adopted leadership style. The participants explained that the leaders' psychological characteristics and emotional empathy, and the followers' gender and behaviour, might be strong reasons

why most of the male leaders tended to adopt soft and transformational approaches when managing and leading female followers, whilst most of the female leaders adopted transactional approaches to managing employees.

Interestingly, the respondents also described the above findings as ‘the same or opposite sex syndrome’; by this they meant that female followers were more comfortable being managed by male leaders, and vice versa. Some scholars (e.g., Belal et al., 2010, Huang et al., 2011, and Kotur & Anbazhagan, 2014) infer that any existing differences in male and female leadership styles or behaviour may be due to other confounding leadership relationships, such as the leaders’ emotional or psychological state of mind, their age and personality, and sometimes the gender and behaviour of the followers.

It was also found that national and sector dictates contributed to the absence of gender differences, as inferred by the respondents from almost all five cases. They described this as departmental or organisational set principles that guided the management of organisational change processes, so that leaders used these in place of their preferred leadership styles and behaviour. This was consistent with the findings of gender and leadership scholars (Den-Hartog et al., 1999, Kiliński, 2000, Kuada, 2010, Nazarian and Atkinson, 2013 and Schneider and Littrell, 2003), who found that national, corporate and sector culture to a great extent interferes and defines the leadership behaviour and pattern of organisational leaders. This was evidenced in the present study by the respondents’ comments about organisational change management leaders not being able to express or apply their preferred way of leading and managing changes.

One of the main findings of this theme/category was that there are some differences in the way that men and women lead and manage organisational change, according to some of the respondents (24 out of 40 respondents). The proportion of respondents who held this view was larger in Cases II and III, compared to Cases I, IV and V. Explicitly, the analysis revealed that leaders of Cases II and III were not completely confined to organisational set principles, but rather led applying their preferred styles and approaches. Speculatively, this could be one of the reasons behind gender leadership differences being more identified or observed in the financial institutions. Also, male and female members of staff were expected to utilise their innate characteristics in the workplace. This was perceived to be more common in the African banking industries. It is worth noting that a slightly higher number of the sample population said that they observed some differences in the ways that men and women managed organisational change programmes in Nigeria. However, 16 out of 40 respondents said that they did not observe differences in males' and females' approaches to managing the implemented changes.

MALE AND FEMALE LEADERS LEADERSHIP PREFERENCES

The extant literature (Eagley, 1997, Statham, 1987 and Winther and Green, 1987, as cited in Moran, 1992) argues that there are strong differences in the leadership and management styles of male and female leaders in organisations. This was congruent with some of the participants' perceptions of the differences between male and female organisational change management styles. The cross-case analysis of both sexes' leadership preferences across the five cases revealed a number of divergent findings contrary to the reviewed literature. Some sex-stereotypical behaviours and patterns associated with male and

female leadership were identified in the theoretical framework of this study. The typical behaviours and patterns described in the literature portrayed women as transformational leaders who are more in tune with participative, empowering and inspirational strategies, and men as transactional leaders who are more in tune with command and task-oriented strategies (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995, Hinkin and Tracey, 1999, Lincoln, 2012 and Moran, 1992). Furthermore, Murray and Syed (2006) postulated that female leaders are more team- and people-oriented, compared to their male counterparts who are considered to be more paternalistic and authoritarian (Rigg and Sparrow, 1994). In contrast to the claims made in the literature stated above, the findings from the five cases of this study revealed that, in the midst of laid-down organisational rules, male leaders predominantly adopted core transformational and democratic approaches. Across the five organisational cases, most of the female leaders predominantly employed hard-core transactional leadership styles attributed to male leaders in the review of literature in Chapters 2 and 3. The above findings were interpreted from statements such as:

I have observed that women leaders tend to be autocratic and aggressive in their leadership styles, whilst men appear to be subjective and softer in their leadership approaches... Through personal experience and having worked with male colleagues, I notice I am more aggressive and stern in my management pattern compared to what I observe with my male colleagues... They are usually more subtle and lenient with their employees.... (Jessica)

The above commentary or finding was also consistent with the sex-differentiated leadership style that portrayed female leaders as more task-engrossed and person-invested, whilst male leaders were image-engrossed and autonomy-invested (Statham, 1987, as cited in Moran, 1992). Statham's sex-differentiated leadership or management style depicts female leaders as being focused more on the task to be accomplished, and

investing in the people carrying out the task, in order to achieve the desired outcome. Conversely, male leaders tend to emphasise power and the significant contribution that they bring to the task context, while focusing less on the task itself. Male leaders feel that the best way to accomplish a task is to stay out of it and give autonomy to those who will be carrying out the task. This can be interpreted as male leaders adopting laissez fair approaches and female leaders adopting autocratic styles. In this study, it is worth noting that the findings from Case V show that female leaders adopted a mixture of transactional and transformational leadership styles in the midst of organisational set principles. Also in relation to male-specific preferences, Cases III and V revealed a mixture of transactional and transformational leadership styles adopted by male leaders in the management of organisational change.

Again, the findings observed from the five cases were congruent with the extant literature. Women felt that they needed to change their management styles to have both themselves and their changes accepted, in order to succeed as effective managers or agents of change (Marshall, 1995). With reference to the literature, Erwee (1994), Erasmus (1998) and Mathur-Helm (2002) advocate that female workers and executives in Africa, similar to the rest of the world, also face glass ceiling barriers to managerial progress and upward mobility. This was evidenced in Erasmus' (1998) research on African career women, which found that, in spite of women's education, talents and commitment to their careers, societal and organisational misconceptions and gender stereotype deter women from progressing up the organisational managerial ladder. Erasmus' (1998) research reports that female leaders were perceived as not having the required leadership potentials and

their leadership behaviour was thought to differ from that of traditional male leaders. This the aforementioned authors argue to have influenced women's leadership aggressive behaviour.

Thus, the masculine styles that most female leaders adopted were described as directive and aggressive, as shown in the findings from this study. In the reviewed literature, Stewart (1996) referred to this as the Thatcher approach to managing change. This was intended to enable them to implement the desired change initiatives and to have their approaches accepted. However, Taft (2008) argues that it is rather insensitive for female managers to adopt male-oriented approaches to leading and managing people in times of organisational change. In addition, Rosener (1990) stated that female managers tend to prefer the interactive (transformational) style, but are influenced or encouraged by a plethora of publicity to adopt male-dominated approaches (command or transactional leadership styles). Speculatively, this could be a reason why female leaders adopt more male-dominated approaches than female ones, as observed from the findings of this study. To this end, further research may be required to investigate the extent to which female leaders are more in tune with male-oriented approaches and male leaders more in tune with female-oriented strategies. Contrary to the present study's findings from Cases II and III, Booysen's (2001) research on gender and leadership practices in financial institutions described African female leaders from the banking institutions as being more transformational and interactive, compared to male leaders. The latter were more transactional and command-oriented, placing more emphasis on performance, competition and winning, domination, control, and directive leadership.

GENDER-EFFECTIVE STRATEGIES

The extant literature posits that there is a need for academics and practitioners of OCM to establish the true nature, extent and effectiveness of the approaches espoused by both sexes, and the intrinsic benefits that both sexes can bring to the success of organisational change (Paton and Dempster, 2002). The above assertion partly inspired the second objective of this study. Thus, the findings revealed some commonalities in the respondents' perceptions of gender-effective strategies from the five organisational cases. It was realised that the male-oriented approaches or strategies adopted by female leaders were described as being the most effective and suitable for managing organisational change. The effectiveness of these approaches they attributed to the aggressive and stringent measures applied by the female leaders across the five organisational cases.

In contrast, the observed findings were inconsistent with Rosener's (1990) and Oerton's (1996) feminine model of leadership, which was portrayed as being more appropriate and effective in managing the socio-economic climate. The feminine model of leadership was also described as approaches that were more able to succeed in an economic downturn, compared to the command-oriented leadership styles predominantly espoused by male managers or leaders. The contrast in this study was that the command-oriented styles were being predominantly employed by the female leaders in the organisations, according to the respondents. The participants attributed the success of the strategies to the stringent methods adopted by the female leaders. In light of this, it can be surmised that culture and value systems may have contributed to the stated inconsistencies. For example, women are under-represented within the African context, however, Makinde (2016) and

Olukayode (2013) report that women's representation in managerial positions has significantly improved in recent times and may be influenced by culture or value systems to adopt male-oriented approaches, which eventually proved to be most effective, according to the respondents. A few of the respondents further deduced that both sexes would effectively manage changes in organisations if given an equal opportunity to do so. In retrospect, the extant theories and models also inferred that female managers may be better equipped to manage changes in organisations if given an equal opportunity (Paton and Dempster, 2002).

Furthermore, it was indicated in the literature that transformational (female attributed) approaches were more appropriate and advantageous for managing change in organisations (Linstead et al., 2005, Oerton, 1996, Paton and Dempster 2008 and Rosener, 1990). However, in this study, the respondents thought that these transformational styles, usually ascribed to males, were good but not advantageous for leading and managing change if success were to be attained. However, some of the respondents further attributed the effectiveness of the stated strategies to the type of change that was being introduced.

8.6 THEME C: LEADERS' AND FOLLOWERS' PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER IMPACT ON OCM

Table 28 is a summary of the findings from the analysis of objective three, which evaluated the leaders' and followers' perceptions of gender impact on OCM in Nigeria.

Table 28: Overview of Theme C Aggregate Findings

THEMES AND CATEGORIES		CASE I MEDICAL HEALTH CENTRE	CASE II BANK- ING INSTIT- UTION	CASE III BANK- ING INSTIT- UTION	CASE IV FEDERAL MINIST- RY	CASE V FEDERAL MINISTRY
Theme C	Leaders' and Followers' Perception of the Impact of Gender on OCM					
Leaders' Perception of Gender Impact on OCM		Gender has an Impact	Gender has an Impact	Mixed (50/50)	Gender has an Impact	Mixed (50/50)
Sub-categories	Male Leaders' Perception	✓ Yes	Mixed (50/50)	✓ Yes	✓ Yes	No
	Female Leaders' Perception	✓ Yes	✓	No	✓ Yes	✓ Yes
Followers' Perception of Gender Impact on OCM		Gender has an Impact	Gender has an Impact	Gender has an Impact	Gender has an Impact	Gender has an Impact
Sub-categories	Male subordinates' Perception	✓ Yes	Mixed (50/50)	✓ Yes	✓ Yes	✓ Yes
	Female subordinates' Perception	✓ Yes	✓ Yes	✓ Yes	Mixed (50/50)	✓ Yes

Eagly and Johnson's (1990) research on gender and leadership further deduces that female managers adopt a far more democratic and participative leadership style than men.

Such a leadership style, they infer, does not only impact on OCM but also on career progression.

The cross-case analysis revealed some interesting overlaps and divergent findings from this theme across the five cases. The leaders of Cases I, II and IV had commonalities in their perception of the impact of gender on OCM, inferring that gender has a strong or major impact on OCM as a result of the distinct and unique styles that leaders adopt when managing organisational change. For example, one of the female leaders at Case I said:

I strongly believe that gender has a significant influence on organisational change programmes. This is due to the differences I have noticed in men and women's leadership style. A distinct example I can think about is negotiation pattern of male and female managers... I have noticed as a male leader that women have done better jobs in negotiating things with the affected employees on changes that met some stern opposition, such as change in policy that negatively affected some members of staff. I think female leaders are more likely to convince the workforce to see the need for the proposed change and what they stand to benefit from it. Hence gender should be generously considered. In turbulent change situations, my piece of advice to managers of change is to always use female managers during such change situations (Kefas).

Retrospectively, it was surmised in the literature that a failure to consider the impact of gender perception on OCM could be one of the contributing factors to the failure of organisational change processes (Daniels, 2011, Creasy, 2012b, Sharma, 2006 and Maurer, 2009). Gender was therefore inferred to have a significant impact on OCM practice, according to Linstead et al. (2005). The findings further reflected the respondents' emphasis on gender, and their view that it should be strongly considered, because it might be the driving force behind a desired outcome. Of particular interest was

the realisation of the distinct styles that exist in males' and females' leadership when managing organisational change, in the midst of laid-down principles that guided change management programmes, according to the respondents of this study. This implied that both sexes have their capabilities and strengths, which can be utilised in varying change situations, based on the findings of the present study. Ely and Meyerson (2000) argue that an understanding of gender in organisations begins with the notion that organisations are inherently gendered as a result of being created by and for men, where social practices tend to reflect and support male experiences and life situations, thereby attaining and maintaining a gendered social order. Essentially, Ely and Meyerson (2000) believe that progress towards equity has been slow, partial and superficial. They therefore propose an emergent and systematic approach to the management of organisational change be put in place, and further suggest that to be comprehensive in this regard, multiple gendered critical lenses need to be simultaneously applied (Ely and Meyerson, 2000).

However, some of the respondents, as mentioned in the previous analysis chapters, repeatedly remarked that management or federal government had set principles that guided OCM processes. This Nazarian and Atkison (2013), Dorfman et al. (2006) and Kuada (2010) construed as corporate, national and sector culture influencing leaders' freedom of management style. Therefore, some of the leaders believed that gender did not have an impact and therefore should not be considered as a critical success factor when designing approaches to managing change processes in organisations. With reference to leaders' perceptions of the impact of gender leadership differences on OCM, leaders of Cases III and V – primarily female leaders of Case III – had mixed perceptions

of the impact of gender on OCM. The leaders contended that gender did not have an impact, with the inference that any well-defined objective can be successfully accomplished by any leader, irrespective of their sex. Musa, one of the male leaders at Case V, elaborated on his perception as:

No, I don't think gender has a role to play in the management of organisational change. Any goal or initiative that is clearly defined can be successfully accomplished by any leader, irrespective of the sex of the person leading or managing.

Again, another captivating finding was the notion of 'the same sex or opposite sex syndrome', where subordinates are more productive and comfortable working with or being managed by the same or opposite sex as a result of cultural and religious beliefs.

According to Justin, one of the male leaders at Case II:

Some people prefer working with the opposite sex. It is probably because that's where they get more attention from..... I have come to realise and accept that female employees prefer to work with the opposite sex, perhaps knowingly or unknowingly, and they have proved to be more effective working with the opposite sex that manages them. On the other hand, the opposite sex seems to neglect or overlook what is on the ground. This is due to a feeling of 'same sex syndrome', where the person in question feels he/she can do better or has passed through a similar situation or challenge.

Essentially, participants observed the impact of gender differences as a result of the same or opposite sex syndrome. This was discussed in the previous analysis chapters as the influence of followers' behaviour and gender on leadership preferences to managing organisational change programmes. According to Luthans (1992, cited in Yi-Huang et al., 2011:5-6), leaders and their followers often have a negotiable and interactive

relationship that can possibly influence each other's behaviour. This brings to mind how followers can also influence the success or failure of managerial practices.

Looking at the followers' perceptions, it was observed that a significant number (17 out of 20) agreed that gender has an impact on OCM. However, they stated that the perceived impact may also depend on the type or nature of the introduced change. A typical example was cited from employee welfare management and IT or construction services. The extant literature posits that women are better managers or leaders of employee welfare (Linstead et al., 2005, Lincoln, 2012, Moran, 1992 and Olukayode, 2013). This was supported by the views of the respondents. Therefore, if the proposed change involves employee welfare, female leaders are suggested to be strongly considered, but if the change is IT- or construction-related, respondents posit that female leaders are less likely to be considered to manage such changes. In essence, such change situations will apparently stir a gender consideration about whose attributes or values will be best suited to manage the introduced change.

Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) and Reardon (1998) argue that, in the midst of suggested approaches, there is no best strategy to managing organisational change, but that the success or the effectiveness of an adopted strategy is dependent on the 'best fit' that suits the situation. In contrast, O'Connor (1993) contends that the assessment of OCM effectiveness should be based on the extent to which certain organisational change prerequisites are met, which he elucidates as employees' understanding and realisation of the need or relevance of the change, the unanimous end goal that should be attainable, and unanimous confidence in the managers of the change programme. Several researchers

(e.g., Dent and Goldberg, 1999, Judson, 1991 and Wanberg and Banas, 2000) note the importance of OCM planning and communication by inferring that resistance or opposition to change may be high if the change programme is not effectively managed with an appropriate leadership style that suits the introduced change.

8.7 CONCLUSION

The aggregate cross-case findings of the five cases stress the importance of considering what each sex can bring to the success of OCM, rather than considering the general strategies, techniques and approaches to managing the changes introduced into an organisation. Thus, the findings from the five cases provided an in-depth understanding of the gendered differences that both sexes display under change circumstances.

Part of the main findings of this study across the five cases was the evidence for the influence of organisational set principles and followers' behaviour and gender on leaders' choice of leadership style or patterns. This has been attributed in the literature (Dastmalchian, Javidan & Alam, 2001, Merhrabani and Mohamed, 2011 and Nazarian and Atkinson, 2013) to the national, corporate and sector culture constraining managers' and leaders' freedom of management style. The impact of such factors impedes leaders from adopting their specific preferred styles, because they have to adhere to national and corporate dictates, and also sometimes they have to consider their followers and the nature of the introduced change. Some of the respondents made it clear that, due to public service leadership, there were no gender leadership differences as leaders had to follow laid-down policies. Organisational laid-down rules further had an impact on the success and effectiveness of adopted strategies.

The extant literature contends that the approaches, models and techniques employed by change management agents to handle change can be dependent upon gender (Linstead et al., 2005). Reardon et al. (1998) further posit that gender plays a significant role in influencing how organisations work and how they are built, while Acker and co-researchers infer that an organisation's starting point is a structure that often characterises different conditions for males and females, even before changes in the organisation are enacted.

Thus, the present situation of gender and OCM and how each sex is situated play a vital role in effective OCM practice. As in the previous theme, a large number of respondents, primarily from Cases IV and V, further maintained that the impact, link and role that gender plays on the management of organisational change strongly depends on the area of specialisation and the nature of the introduced change. For example, a construction firm that experienced many restructuring changes might need male leaders to manage such changes, as the nature of their work is mostly male dominated and will therefore be better understood and managed by male leaders. Strebel (1996) proffers a model that not only links styles of leadership to OCM, but also to the degree to which an entity is open to change initiatives.

Essentially, any discourse on leadership and the management of organisational change must take into consideration any organisation's willingness to remain either open or closed to change prospects. Therefore, managers, change agents, consultants, academics and practitioners are advised not to underestimate the impact of gender differences in the

management of organisational change (Linstead et al., 2005 and Paton and Dempster, 2002).

9 CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

“Yes, I believe gender has a substantial link and role to play on the management of organisational change...The substantial link and role is as a result of the differences I observed in both sexes’ leadership styles. I would also advise that both sexes should be given the chance to manage changes taking place in organisations. In essence, organisations should take on board what men and women can bring into the change situation, because they handle change situations in a different manner or approach” (Rebecca, Case II-Female Subordinate 1).

9.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a summary of the overall findings of this research, and concluding thoughts about the findings, which have been presented in eight sections. The **first section** presents an overview of the research gaps and purpose. The **second section** summarises the accomplishment and significance of the research findings in relation to each objective. The **third section** presents the study’s main contributions to knowledge, its methodological contributions, and managerial and practical recommendations with associated policy implications. After this, the limitations observed by the researcher and suggestions for future research are presented in the **fourth and fifth sections**. The final concluding thoughts of the overall research findings are presented in the **sixth section**. Finally, the OCM framework derived from the study’s findings and personal reflective piece are provided in the **seventh and eighth sections**.

9.2 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH GAPS AND PURPOSE

OCM has received a considerable amount of attention from academics, change agents and practitioners (Paton and Dempster, 2002). However, it still poses difficulties and challenges to managers and practitioners. Therefore, there is a need for successful strategies for dealing with the complexity and demands of change processes in organisations (Olotu, 2012). It is also clear that organisations are still some distance away from establishing an OCM model that reflects successful strategies in an informed and integrated manner. From the findings of this research and Paton and Dempster's (2002) exploratory study on the suitability of women's and men's skills for managing organisational change, it can be seen that there is a need for the development and implementation of a gender-inclusive model that can drive change programmes in organisations to achieve their desired result. This was part of the rationales that led to the development of the study's new OCM framework, as presented in section 9.8 of this chapter.

More specifically, it is reported that employees in under-developed or developing countries show a lukewarm attitude towards change interventions and initiatives, because of the perceived impact of organisational change processes (Nosakhare, 2000). Furthermore, Nosakhare (2000) suggests that most employees in the stated locations tend to see change as an impediment to progress, rather than seeing organisational change processes as an effort that enhances economic and organisational growth. This is partly responsible for the slow acceptance of such interventions in developing countries such as Nigeria (Olotu, 2012). Other than people's perceived negative impact of change processes, the literature further identified the impediments to the successful

implementation of organisational change as the inappropriate management of change processes and the interference of internal and external factors, such as national, corporate and sector dictates or culture. Additionally, successful change implementation could be hampered by a lack of technical skills in driving organisational change, environmental factors, a lack of communication, and culture, religious and social value systems (Creasey, 2012, Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011, Schneider and Littrell, 2003, Kuada, 2010, Nazarian and Atkinson, 2013, Olufemi, 2009 and Olotu, 2012).

The overall purpose of this study was to ascertain the extent to which, if any, there is a relationship between gender and OCM, and to further investigate the likely impact of such a relationship on OCM practices and outcome. The overall purpose of this study is to help identify and recommend strategies that will assist with successfully managing change processes in organisations.

A detailed summary of the significance of the study's findings and the actual achievement of the aims and objectives of the present study are presented in the next section.

9.3 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF THE RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The extant literature on OCM reveals that 70 per cent of OCM processes fail to achieve their desired outcome (Creasey, 2012, Daniel, 2011, Nosakhare, 2000, Olufemi, 2009 Olotu, 2012 and Sharma, 2006). The literature review showed that numerous empirical studies on the implementation of organisational change practices in developed countries, such as the United Kingdom and United States, have been conducted (Gittleman, Horrigan and Joyce, 1998 and Perez, Sanchez, Gamicer and Jimenez, 2004); however, there is a lack of empirical studies on the successful implementation of OCM practices in Africa. It was further revealed in the literature that research was needed to establish the nature, extent and effectiveness of the approaches employed by both sexes in managing organisational change programmes. Also, research was required to establish how best to harness and exploit the intrinsic benefits that male and female leaders can bring to the success of organisational change (Paton and Dempster, 2008). These gaps in the literature gave rise to this research. This section summarises the findings and the significance of the findings in relation to the the first three objectives of this study.

The overall aim was to investigate the differences that might exist between male and female organisational change leadership styles, from the perspectives of leaders and the recipients of organisational change management practices in Nigeria. The present study's respondents attributed the existence and absence of gender differences to certain important factors. The first factor is national and sector culture, which influences leaders' choice of preferred leadership style and behaviour. Secondly, the leaders' preferred leadership and exhibited behaviour may have been influenced by the gender and

behaviours of the followers who they manage during the change programmes. Also, some of the respondents attributed the observed leadership differences to the personality of the leaders, and not necessarily to the sex of the leader.

Around 60 per cent of the sample population believe that there may be some differences in the ways that men and women manage and approach change scenarios, and that this may impact on OCM outcomes. Therefore, a consideration of such a relationship or impact might be the driving force behind achieving OCM's desired outcome. The other 40 per cent of the respondents reported not having observed differences in the ways that men and women approached or managed change, because the leaders were bound by strict procedures for leading and managing the changes. This was attributed to the influence of corporate, national and sector culture on leaders' freedom of leadership style and behaviour. The subsequent sub-sections discuss the achievement of the research objectives.

Objective 1: Review of Current Trends, Strategies and Approaches Adopted by Change Managers, Practitioners and Agents in OCM

The basis of this objective was to uncover the strategies or approaches adopted by change managers and practitioners for managing change programmes. This was intended to determine whether or not the adopted strategies were the appropriate strategies or approaches to drive organisational change to the desired outcome. This research identified some significant strategies that were adopted by managers for managing organisational change in Nigeria. It was found that managers of organisational change adopted education, counselling, constant awareness of the change process and the need for the

change process, effective communication, train the trainer, and the carrot and the stick approach, to manage the changes. The strategies mentioned by the participants from the five cases were the same as those proposed by Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) for managing organisational change.

Case II leaders appeared to have adopted an approach known as the Stupid-idea Approach. This was explained as an approach where management welcomed any sort of idea from members of staff. These suggested ideas were collated and meaningful suggestions or ideas were incorporated into the decision-making process of change management programmes. This change management approach was consistent with Olufemi (2009), who stated that participatory approaches had a positive impact on the success of change initiatives and interventions in organisations. Another significant finding from this theme was the adoption of organisational or departmental laid-down principles, where leaders did not apply a personal or preferred strategy but rather adhered to laid-down guidelines set by higher authority to managing changes. Case IV, the Ministry of Construction, appeared to have been mostly affected by rules and guidelines implemented by management to guide organisational change processes. This echoes the findings of several scholars (Dastmalchian, Javidan and Alam, 2001, Kuada, 2010, Merhrabani and Mohamed, 2011, Nazarian and Atkinson, 2013 and Schneider and Littrell, 2003), who argue that national, corporate and sector culture to a great extent influences leaders' freedom of choice of leadership or management style.

The aggregate findings reveal that the changes introduced into the organisations had a positive impact on them and their existing employees, according to some of the

participants. It was speculated that the reported positive impact was partly due to the type of changes that took place in the organisations. The respondents' perceptions were that the introduced changes were deemed to be necessary and relevant at the time of their introduction and implementation. For example, one of the respondents from Case I stated that the introduced changes upgraded the organisation, which in turn made it more effective and productive.

Additionally, some of the respondents recounted that the adopted strategies for managing changes had resulted in a mixed outcome or reaction from members of staff, especially from those who were directly affected by the changes. This was mentioned by participants from three out of the five organisations. The mixed reaction was observed to have been expressed primarily from changes such as the technological changes encountered mostly in the private sector, and changes in the policy of promotion criteria, as encountered in the medical health centre. With the technological changes, it was realised that demography played a major role, as the older workforce, who were not computer or digitally literate, were affected by the introduction of new technology software to facilitate banking activities, according to the participants. Due to the unfavourable implemented changes, especially from the banking industries, respondents reported that effective strategies were not employed to mitigate or manage the adverse impact of the introduced changes. Also, the introduction of education or qualification means of promotion policies contributed to the mixed reactions or outcomes from the medical

health centre, where promotion was based on qualifications and not the length of service, as initially done.

The implication of this finding is that managers, change agents and practitioners of organisational change programmes should consider putting in place effective strategies before implementing any changes that may have an adverse impact on employees. The effective strategies highlighted by the findings were effective communication, training and development, counselling, application of exchange principles (carrot and stick approaches), constant awareness and orientation of the need for the change. These perhaps could be some strategies to be considered in the effective management of change programmes by organisations and practitioners. Furthermore, the findings showed that the organisations that participated in this study may not have had departments or units that specifically managed the implemented changes according to the participants. This study strongly recommends that organisations consider creating units or trained capable personnel that are accountable and responsible for the effective management of organisational change programmes, considering the reported failure rate of changes introduced into organisations. This may increase the likelihood that OCM practices will achieve their desired outcomes.

Objective 2: To Investigate the Differences and Preferences in the Way Men and Women Manage Organisational Change in Nigeria

As mentioned earlier, the main aim of this investigation is to contribute to knowledge and to assist organisations with change management initiatives and programmes. There are some differences and commonalities in the leadership and management styles of male and female leaders in organisations (Eagley, 1997, Lincoln, 2012, Tatham, 1987 and Winther and Green, 1987, as cited in Moran, 1992). This was congruent with some of the findings from this study, which is of the perception that there may be some differences in the ways that men and women manage change programmes in organisations, according to 60 per cent of the participants.

Of particular interest were some divergent findings from this objective with the reviewed literature. Leadership behaviours and patterns in the literature described women as more transformational in their leadership pattern and more in tune with participative, empowering and inspirational strategies (Booyesen, 2001, Kabacoff, 1998, Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Rigg and Sparrow, 1994). Conversely, men were described as transactional in their leadership styles and often goal- and command-oriented (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995, Hinkin and Tracey, 1999, Lincoln, 2012 and Moran, 1992). In contrast to the above literature, a greater number of the present study's sample population revealed that, in the midst of laid-down organisational or departmental principles, male leaders predominantly adopted core transformational and democratic approaches. Conversely, female leaders predominantly employed core transactional leadership styles, usually attributed to male leaders in the extant literature.

It can therefore be argued that African organisational systems and procedures, cultural values and norms may have played a significant role in the divergent findings. Within the African context, it can be construed that women have been under-represented or dominated by male leaders in the management hierarchy, according to Adichie (2013), when Hofstede's masculine versus feminine dimension of culture is applied (Hofstede, 1980). Therefore, women feel that they can only make their way up the management ladder by adopting male-dominated leadership approaches, such as autocratic and transactional leadership styles, to prove their worth and managerial effectiveness (Syed and Murray, 2008). This was further evidenced in Paton and Dempster's (2002) research, which revealed that women made an effort to change their management or leadership style and to adopt male-oriented styles in order to succeed as effectual change agents or managers.

In addition, Schneider and Littrell (2003) argue that male and female patterns of leadership behaviour vary significantly across national cultures, as organisational and societal gender stereotypes often determine leaders' choice of leadership behaviour. Furthermore, Erasmus (1998) reports that female leaders were perceived as not having the required leadership potential, as their leadership behaviour differed from traditional male leaders' behaviour, and it was therefore thought that they may not be effective in managing organisational change processes. Arguably, the aforementioned stereotype and segregation may have led to some of the female leaders' adoption of the transactional approaches to prove their worth and to have their leadership behaviours accepted. In summary, it was understood that this was perhaps a strong rationale for female leaders adopting more male-dominated approaches, in place of their customary leadership styles.

Some of the respondents' responses showed that organisational or departmental laid-down principles, interpreted in the analysis chapters as national, corporate and sector dictates, interfered with leaders' freedom of preferred management style and behaviour. The respondents also talked about the followers' gender and behaviour as a factor that could influence leaders' choice of leadership style and behaviour. For instance, male leaders mostly adopted a transformational leadership style when managing female recipients in the change process, with some male leaders exhibiting signs of emotional empathy for the opposite sex during change programmes. On the contrary, most of the female leaders tended to be more transactional when managing other females, perceiving that they face the same experiences and struggles that their fellow female recipients face, and that hence, this should not leave room for underperformance. This was linked to the same or opposite sex syndrome, where male leaders were more transformational when managing the opposite sex and women were more transactional. The above has been construed in the analysis chapters as the influence of followers' gender and behaviour on leadership behaviour and style. This has implications for policy makers, who may need to consider the impact that national or sector culture, and followers' behaviour and gender, may have on effective leadership practices if the OCM desired outcome is to be achieved.

The second objective was partly inspired by Paton and Dempster's (2002) suggestion of the need for academics and practitioners of OCM to establish the actual nature, extent and effectiveness of the approaches espoused by both sexes, and the intrinsic benefits that both genders can bring to the success of organisational change. Moreover, the extant theories and models argue that transformational approaches (normally attributed to

females) were more appropriate and advantageous for managing change in organisations, especially during economic downturns (Linstead et al., 2005, Oerton, 1996, Paton and Dempster, 2002 and Rosener, 1990). This indicates that female managers or leaders may be better equipped for managing organisational change processes. This was inconsistent with some of the respondents' responses on gender-effective approaches. The findings from this study revealed that the transformational styles attributed to male leaders were perceived as being good, but not necessarily advantageous for successfully leading and managing change. In contrast to the reviewed literature, the approaches and strategies adopted by female leaders across the five cases of this study were described as male-oriented strategies, and they were seen as the most effective and suitable for managing organisational change, according to the participants of this study. The effectiveness of the approaches adopted by females was attributed by the participants to the aggressive and stringent measures that were applied by them.

The contrast to the literature is that the command-oriented styles were the ones indicated by the respondents as being predominantly employed by female leaders, and they proved to be most effective in managing change in organisations. The participants saw the most effective strategies as being the stringent methods adopted by the female leaders, rather than by the male leaders, as portrayed in the literature. The significance of the above findings is that policy makers may need to consider and integrate this study's highlighted success factors, such as leaders' empathic nature, ability to communicate effectively, drive and determination for success and dogmatic and aggressive leadership style, into the design of OCM strategies and approaches.

The overall achievement of this objective is that there may be differences in the ways that men and women lead and manage change processes in organisations, according to 60 per cent of the participants of the present study. However, the other 40 per cent did not observe further leadership differences as a result of certain internal and external factors, such as national, sector and corporate culture constraints on leaders' freedom to choose a management style. By implication, managers, practitioners, academics and agents of change need to consider the distinct benefits that both sexes can bring to the successful management of a change process. Therefore, organisations may need to include gender-inclusive methodologies to manage change processes in organisations, which prompted the development of this study's new framework to guide the management of organisational change.

Objective 3: Evaluation of Leaders' and Followers' Perception of the Impact of Gender on OCM in Nigeria

Research (e.g. Linstead et al., 2005, Eagly, 1987 and Gibson, 1993) shows that gender may have an impact on OCM practice, and it further notes the communal behaviour of both sexes and the impact that such behaviour might have on the desired outcome. Part of the findings from objective three reveal that gender may have a significant impact on OCM practices and outcome. This study, as repeatedly mentioned by the respondents from the cases, suggests that gender should be strongly considered when designing change management practices or programmes in organisations, considering that this will enable organisations to understand the areas in which male and female leaders' strengths or capabilities can be best utilised.

The research under this objective also revealed the notion of ‘same sex or opposite sex syndrome’, which was particularly found in Cases I and II. This syndrome was described as situations where particular followers are more productive and comfortable working with or being managed by either the same or opposite sex, perhaps as a result of cultural and religious beliefs. For example, some beliefs or values do not permit a man to be managed or led by a female manager, which is particularly common within the African context, so they wish to be managed and led by the same sex. Another example could be situations where a certain sex feels that the same or opposite sex are likely to understand them better and positively influence them to be more productive, and so they prefer to be managed or led by the same or opposite sex. In sum, some of the participants observed that gender differences in leadership styles may be a result of the same or opposite sex syndrome. This implies that managers, change agents and practitioners may need to take into account the recipients’ cultural beliefs and values if the desired outcome is to be achieved.

Tyler’s (2005) analysis of women as the second sex and men as the primary sex constituted a fertile ground from which to explore in depth the relationship between sexual differences and organisational processes, such as OCM and gender. Also, the reported 70 per cent failure rate of organisational change programmes, which was attributed to the OCM aspect being largely ignored (Creasey, 2012a, Daniels, 2011, Paton and Dempster, 2002, Linstead et al., 2005 and Sharma, 2006) contributed to investigating this objective, which examined leaders and followers’ perception of the impact of gender on OCM outcome.

The overall finding in relation to this objective was that 60 per cent of the respondents thought that gender may have an overall impact on OCM outcome. This implies the synergetic capabilities and strengths that men and women bring to varying change situation, because different change situations require different leadership skills and capabilities to drive the change programme to a desired outcome. According to Schimmoeller (2010), the survival of an organisation depends on the leader's ability to adopt an appropriate leadership style that suits the nature of the task and the behaviour of their subjects. This was also consistent with Senior and Fleming's (2006) stance, as they advocate the importance of leaders identifying which leadership style is best suited for each stage of the change process, in order to match leadership styles and capabilities in both sexes.

As suggested by some of the respondents, there may be a need for gender as a distinct dimension to be considered when designing and implementing change processes in organisations. Additionally, some of the respondents' (primarily from Cases III and IV) asserted that the impact of gender on change management was contingent on the organisation's area of specialisation and the nature of the introduced change. For example, a construction firm that experienced many restructuring changes might need male leaders to manage, because the nature of their work is mostly male dominated and it may therefore be better understood and managed by male leaders. Dunphy and Stacey (1993) and Senior and Fleming (2006) suggest that the choice of a specific leadership style should be based on the nature of the introduced change. For example, Senior and Fleming (2006) propose that a transformational leadership style should be best employed to manage transformational or frame-breaking change. In contrast, Dunphy and Stacey

(1993) further contend that any management style can be used with any type of change. They particularly linked different styles of leadership to different types and forms of change.

The next section discusses the contributions of this research.

9.4 MAIN RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS AND MANAGERIAL/PRACTICAL RECOMMENDATIONS

This section presents the main research contributions to knowledge, and managerial and practical recommendations with associated policy implications.

General Knowledge Contributions

There is a lack of empirical studies on the relationship and impact of gender on OCM in developing or under-developed countries. There is also a lack of scholarly articles on gender and OCM with specific reference to developing countries; however, there are several on developed countries, with an emphasis on the UK (Paton and Dempster, 2002). This study therefore adds to the body of literature or knowledge in the field of OCM, gender, conflict resolution and leadership, by identifying the relationship between gender and OCM and its potential impact on OCM outcome in developing countries, with a particular emphasis on Nigeria. This research also empirically identified key strategies and factors (e.g., train-the-trainer, effective communication and counselling) that contribute to the effective or successful management of organisational change in organisations.

Employees in under-developed or developing countries show a lukewarm attitude towards change interventions and initiatives, because of the perceived impact of

organisational change processes (Nosakhare, 2000). It was observed that no previous research had put forward gender-inclusive success strategies or guidelines for organisations to successfully manage change processes in Nigeria or other developing countries. Thus, this is a pioneering study in the area (gender and OCM) that has put together success strategies in the form of a new change OCM framework that promotes a gender-inclusive OCM methodology in Nigeria. Its aim is to contribute to the success of organisational change programmes and to assist organisations, practitioners, change agents and actors to successfully manage change processes in organisations.

Overall, the developed OCM framework and observed findings provides a dynamic view of the factors that affect OCM, thus increasing the understanding and awareness of critical factors that contribute to the failure and success of change initiatives or programmes in organisations. Additionally, the findings suggest that there are certain factors such as corporate, national, and sector cultures that interfere with the management of change programmes in organisations. These may need to be taken into account when designing OCM strategies, if the desired outcome is to be attained. Furthermore, the findings showed that the leaders' adopted leadership style and exhibited behaviour was influenced by the gender and behaviour of the followers who were managed during OCM. Most existing literature tends to focus primarily on leaders' behaviour, but very limited attention has been paid to how followers' behaviour and traits impact on the outcome of leadership practices in organisations. It is worth making an effort to ensure that followers' behaviour and traits contribute to the successful management of change programmes in organisations.

The present study's framework can also be used by other researchers conducting similar work. The framework will not only assist organisations in developing countries but may also be relevant to other developed countries, as the reported failure rate of organisational change programmes also covers areas such as the United Kingdom and the United States of America. Overall, this research sought to assist change managers, practitioners, change agents, actors, academics and policy makers with adopting gender-inclusive methodologies to manage changes introduced into organisations.

Methodological Contributions

This study is one of the rare purely qualitative studies carried out on gender and OCM in Nigeria that may be relevant to other countries. Therefore, it makes a methodological contribution through the adoption of a qualitative method to collect data, using semi-structured interviews and a range of different analysis methods as opposed to usual quantitative methods that have been employed to conduct change management research. The range of adopted analysis methods – such as thematic template analysis, inductive content analysis, descriptive data analysis and cross-case analysis – also triangulated the findings of this research. The research also used a method of validation or triangulation called a participant information check, which, as noticed by the researcher during the review of methodological approaches and methods, is rarely used by researchers. Triangulation was achieved through the adoption of different analytical tools and methods that helped to overcome issues associated with the use of a single method. It is anticipated that the adopted methods will provide insight to other researchers who may be conducting similar research within the field of gender and OCM.

Practical and Managerial Recommendations and Policy Implications

Part of the study's findings revealed female leaders as being more effective leaders of organisational change management than male leaders. The participants reported that women's empathic nature, ability to communicate effectively, their drive and determination for success and being very dogmatic and aggressive in their leadership style, proved female leaders more effective and successful in the management of organisational change programmes. Furthermore, the findings suggest that the change leaders were bound by strict laid-down principles that did not enable leaders to adopt their preferred pattern of leadership style. Therefore, this has policy implications for organisations, as they must ensure that OCM policy makers duly consider the successful driving factors (effective communication, empathic nature, drive and determination for success, and aggressive approach towards OCM) as mentioned by the participants.

Similarly, a significant part of the findings from this study reveal that the success and effectiveness of adopted strategies were attributed to designed policies, which the respondents referred to as organisational laid-down rules. By implication, this study contributes to the policy and practice of OCM, with a specific emphasis on policy makers to consider the impact of gender on OCM when designing their strategies.

Furthermore, it was realised from the findings that most of the organisations that participated in this study may not have had departments or units that specifically managed the implemented changes. Policy makers and respective organisations should therefore ensure that clear and transparent departments or trained capable people are put in place

to effectively manage the changes. This may increase the chances of OCM interventions meeting the desired outcome.

9.5 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

As with other studies, this research encountered some limitations. These are discussed below.

1. One of the first limitations encountered was the lack of current research, articles and publications on gender and OCM, which needed to be reviewed for a better understanding of the concepts, theories and models.
2. Also, the participants might have withheld some vital information from the researcher without her knowledge. This withheld information may have enriched and improved the results of this research. Also, shortly before the data collection phase, there was an incident, which went viral on social media, involving a well-known top government official who had an unpleasant experience in a public interview. This led to the respondents being extremely careful or cautious, in order not to repeat what had previously happened to this official.
3. The study also intended to conduct a comparative study between Nigeria and the United Kingdom. However, this was not achieved because of a lack of access to participants in the United Kingdom. It was also difficult to generalise Nigeria's results to other developed or developing countries of the world, without additional research being conducted in those countries or locations.

4. Data collection was limited to organisations in Abuja, the state capital of Nigeria, due to ethical considerations and the security issues in the sample's location. It can be speculated that collecting data from different branches across the country would have enriched the data as it would not be confined to a particular location or region.
5. The collected and analysed data was based on the information provided by participants and as such may not necessarily be the facts or the actual truth about the differences that exist between male and female organisational change leadership styles.
6. It is also worth noting that the results collected from the respondents were analysed and interpreted by only one person (the researcher). Thus, another researcher may have been able to analyse and interpret the data or results differently.
7. The sample sizes of the study were too small for generalisations to be made; this suggests the need for additional research employing larger samples to further test the results of the present study.

9.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The research limitations mentioned in the previous section and the results of this research led to the identification of potential future research for further investigation. Recommendations for further research are therefore discussed below.

- ❖ Within the African context, it has been stated in the literature that women are under-represented or dominated by male leaders in the management hierarchy (Adichie, 2013, Ibarra, 1993, Konrad et al., 1992, Syed, 2007, 2008b). Therefore, women feel that they can only make their way up the management ladder by adopting male-dominated leadership approaches, such as autocratic and transactional leadership styles. Further research may therefore be required to investigate the extent to which female leaders are more in tune with male-oriented approaches and males with feminine-oriented strategies across different industries and sectors.
- ❖ Also, the findings from the present study suggest that there may be some differences in the ways that men and women approach change scenarios in organisations, and that this may have an impact on the outcome of organisational change programmes. Also, the study further suggests that women are more effective and successful managers of organisational change programmes than men as a result of their emotional empathic nature, ability to effectively communicate, their drive and determination for success, and the adoption of hard or transactional approaches in the management of change programmes. The observed gender leadership differences and women's effectiveness as successful managers of organisational change may have occurred as a result of the industry or sectors. As such, further research may be required to conduct the same or similar research across different industries and sectors within the same country (or other countries) to validate the realities of the observed differences and to investigate whether women's adopted approaches are a result of the industry or sector.

- ❖ Part of the main findings of this research revealed that national or sector culture may have influence on leaders' leadership style and behaviour. Furthermore, Nazarian and Atkinson (2013) suggest that further research may be required to clearly investigate how other factors, including national and sector culture, interfere with and affect leaders' choice of leadership style – there is limited empirical research on this area. Consequently, further research may be required to investigate the extent to which national, corporate and sector culture affects leaders' freedom of management style.
- ❖ As established in Chapter 3, employees from less-developed countries are likely to show a more resigned compliance to ineffective management of organisational change practices, compared to employees from developed countries (Idiagbon-Oke and Oke, 2011). A comparative study may be required to validate this proposition and further research could look into factors that may be determinants of such a proposition.
- ❖ As stated in the previous section, there is a lack of scholarly articles on gender and OCM with specific reference to developing countries, although there are a few on developed countries, particularly the UK (Paton and Dempster, 2002). Further research may be required to investigate the impact of gender on OCM, with a specific emphasis on the United States of America. In addition, a further comparative study may be required to focus on the same topic between developed and developing countries.
- ❖ Part of the main findings of this study indicated that the success and effectiveness of adopted strategies largely depended on designed policies, which the

respondents referred to as organisational laid-down rules. Therefore, in order to achieve success in the area, organisations need to consider who the policy makers of OCM processes are, i.e. whether they are mere policy makers or people sensitive to the OCM challenge, and people who know how to tailor change management needs and possible solutions. Further research is required to investigate the extent to which laid-down rules or principles impact on the outcome of organisational change initiatives or programmes.

- ❖ Haslam, Ryan and Clara (2010) assert that women are more likely than men to experience a glass cliff (women's leadership positions are precarious or risky) after breaking through the glass ceiling. Further research may be required to explore the likelihood of women experiencing a glass cliff.
- ❖ Furthermore, this study's findings suggest that leaders' behaviour and adopted strategies may be influenced by the sex and behaviour of the followers who are managed in the course of the change programmes. The above finding is not far removed from the stance of Kotur and Anbazhagan (2014) and Huang et al., (2011), who also suggest that male and female followers significantly differ in their behaviours and may likely influence leadership behaviour and preferences. They claim that the stated differences in followers' behaviour may have an impact on leaders' behaviour and their choice of leadership preferences. Therefore, further research may be required to examine the extent of the influence that the sex and behaviour of followers may have on organisational change management practices.

9.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the main contributions of this research to the body of knowledge and literature, which includes the designed OCM framework, and contributions in relation to methodology and practical implications. The study adds to the body of knowledge by providing empirical evidence that increases the knowledge and understanding of the relationship and impact of gender on OCM in Nigeria. This study did not focus on any specific change event, but a repertoire of organisational change programmes. The findings of this research are beneficial to OCM academics, practitioners and policy makers. It is further expected that future research will extend or promote the knowledge of gender and OCM by the investigation of other industries, regions and countries beyond the area covered by this research, perhaps with a larger sample population.

One of the main reasons for conducting this research was the 70 per cent reported failure rate of organisational change programmes and a lack of academic resources on gender and OCM. Thus, there may be a lack of successful framework or guidelines for successful management of change programmes in organisations. Insights from this study suggest that the impact of gender on OCM may contribute to the success of OCM.

Overall, according to the majority (60 per cent) of the respondents in the present study, there may be distinct differences in the ways that men and women manage change processes in organisations and this may have a positive impact on the OCM outcome. According to some of the respondents, the impact of gender on OCM might be the driving force behind the success of organisational change programmes, in the sense that a consideration of both sexes' preferred leadership styles and capabilities may help

organisations to utilise each sexes' strengths and capabilities. However, 40 per cent of the respondents were of the opinion that gender did not have an impact on OCM practices, especially when there are laid-down rules to manage such processes. The reviewed literature described this as the influence of national or sector culture on leaders' freedom of leadership style. Additionally, notable in this research were recurrent references to the influence of followers' gender and behaviour on leadership behaviour and preferences. Essentially, leaders' leadership behaviour and styles were further influenced by the sex and behaviour of the followers that the leaders managed during the change processes.

The findings of this study are interesting, and the counter-intuitive findings contribute to the knowledge of OCM and the implementation of the changes in organisations. This leads to the development of this study's OCM framework, as presented in the next section, to guide the effective and successful management of changes in organisations.

9.8 STUDY'S FRAMEWORK FOR THE SUCCESSFUL MANAGEMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

According to Singh et al. (2004), organisational leaders should redesign jobs and work systems to make them responsive to the strengths of female and male employees. Furthermore, Littrell and Nkomo (2005) advocate that Africa has what it takes to develop an appropriate management solution or model by building a highly adaptive hybrid management system (a combination of collectivism and performance-driven leadership style) capable of managing change through a utilisation of the strengths and synergies of gender-balanced workforce. As noted in the overall findings of this research and reviewed

literature, a failure to consider the impact of gender on OCM may lead to the failure of organisational change programmes (Daniels, 2011, Creasey, 2012b, Sharma, 2006 and Maurer, 2009). The greater part of the findings of this study suggest that organisations should take into account gender-inclusive methodologies to manage change processes, because of the observed impact of gender on OCM from some of the respondents. This led to the development of this study's model, shown in Figure 7, to guide the management of organisational change. This is logically aimed to contribute to the success of organisational change programmes and to assist organisations, practitioners, change agents and actors with successfully managing change programmes in organisations. Presented below is the study's revised and updated model.

A 9-Tier Gender-Inclusive Change Management Model

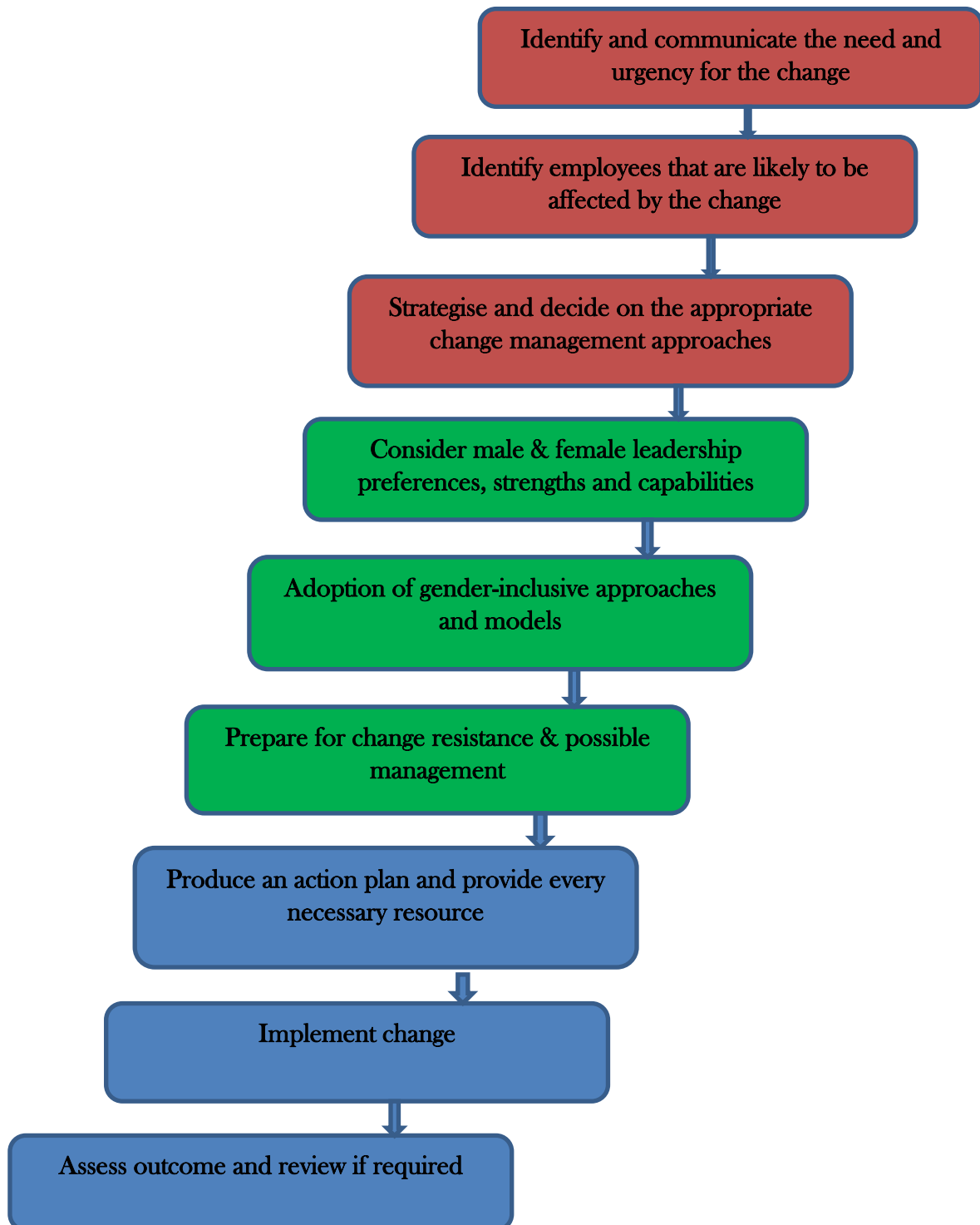


Figure 7. The Study's Change Management Model (Researcher 2017)

The study's 9-tier framework generally stresses the importance of considering what each sex can bring to the success of OCM, rather than considering general strategies adopted by change managers for managing changes. The 1st tier emphasises the need for organisations to identify and communicate the need and urgency for the change and the likely effects of the proposed change. The 2nd tier advocates that change leaders and actors should make every possible effort to identify the employees that are most likely to be affected by the change process. This is to enable managers to decide on appropriate measures, approaches and strategies (as indicated in tier 3) to manage the identified change and employees or units that are likely to be affected by the change. The 4th tier suggest that policy makers and those involved in the design of OCM strategies should consider the strengths, capabilities and leadership preference of male and female leaders, so that organisations can strategically position the most suitable managers or leaders to manage the pre- and post-effects of the proposed change. For example, if it is a change that involves welfare, female leaders are recommended, but if it is a change that involves construction or other technical aspect, male leaders are recommended. Consequently, the 5th tier advises organisations to adopt gender-inclusive models or approaches to managing change programmes, based on the fact that a slightly greater proportion of the present study's sample thought that gender should be considered when designing organisational change management strategies. The 6th tier further suggests that organisations should make every possible effort to identify likely resistance and prepare to counteract it before the implementation stage. The recommended strategies are effective communication and awareness of the identified change, and employees should be constantly counselled,

educated and trained on the change programmes and associated effects. Additionally, participatory and exchange principles (carrot and stick approaches) are suggested to counteract the likely resistance that may be encountered in the change programme. The 7th tier involves an action plan being drawn up and agreed, and providing the appropriate resources required to manage the transition and change programme. Having fulfilled and accomplished the last seven tiers, it is recommended that the proposed change be introduced and implemented as the 8th tier. However, this should be evaluated or assessed, to ensure that it is satisfactory and has been successfully implemented with very minimal adverse impact. If it is unsatisfactory, the changes and their implementation should be reviewed and amended if required, which is the 9th tier.

The present research and developed framework holistically build on the theory of gender diversity in managing organisational change programmes by demonstrating the relationship between feminine values, masculine values and organisational change management. The findings and discussions around the thesis centred on how both feminine and masculine values and attributes can bring success to the management of change programmes in organisations. The study's framework recommends that organisations increase both sexes' participation in managerial positions and decision-making processes, because the key qualities or attributes of both sexes lie not only in their sameness, but also in their unique leadership differences.

9.9 PERSONAL REFLECTIVE PIECE

While I anticipated increasing my understanding and knowledge of the field of gender and OCM, I must confess that the decision to pursue my PhD was a life-changing experience for me. There are numerous things that I learnt and developed in the process of carrying out this research; I started out as an average, timid learner and became a very courageous, intellectual academic, with the gracious help of God and my supervisory team. I was inspired by one of my lecturers, Ian McLean, who taught me a module on OCM during my Master's Degree at Coventry University.

This entire process has been a learning experience that familiarised me with the contexts of gender and OCM discourse. The process of this research started with me drafting a proposal, reviewing the literature, and understanding the philosophical and methodological issues and challenges associated with collecting data and interviewing 40 interviewees within a very limited time, due to a delay in having access to those who assented to participate in my research. Presenting my research findings at conferences, and in one-on-one discussions with my supervisory team, examiners and colleagues, has moulded me from being timid to courageous and bold. I say a very big thanks to all those who made this possible.

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11 APPENDICES

11.1 APPENDIX 1: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION AND CONSENT SHEET

11.1.1 PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

What is the purpose of this project?

I am currently undertaking a project on gender perception in managing organisational change. The purpose of this project is to investigate and explore the likely differences in the way both sexes manage and lead organisational change interventions or initiatives. In identifying the likely differences, it further sets out to ascertain the likely impact of gender perception on the management of organisational change. In addition, if the findings prove vast differences in the way both sexes lead and manage organisational change, the project would further investigate the extent of a linkage between both concepts, as well as the likely impact that such a linkage may have upon an overall organisational change performance or outcome. Hence, the research entails a cross-comparison study on gender differences in the way organisational change is being managed and led in the United Kingdom and Nigeria. This involves collating data from health, public and private organisations in the United Kingdom and Nigeria that have recently or currently been subjected to or have undergone substantial organisational change. Data will be collected from male and female senior managers who have led and managed organisational change, as well as from male and female employees who have been subjected to organisational change initiatives.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen to take part in this research as a leader that has possibly implemented and managed change initiatives or interventions within an organisation or an institution with which you have worked with.

Is it mandatory for me to take part?

No, you are under no compulsion or obligation to take part in this project. Participation is completely voluntary and you have the right to accept or decline participation in the project. You also have the right to withdraw from taking part at any point of the project if you so decide.

What do I have to do?

I would be grateful if you could voluntarily participate in an initial semi-structured interview, followed by a survey questionnaire. I would also be most grateful if you would permit me to record the proceedings of the interview. The interview would take approximately 30-45 minutes.

What are the possible risks associated with taking part in this project?

There are minimal risks considered to be associated with this research. Every effort will be made to ensure that you, your colleagues, research participants and associated organisations are not directly or indirectly implicated as a result of this research. Anonymity and confidentiality will be established by making sure that you, your colleagues, research participants and associated organisations are never referred to directly by name within published outputs. Careful steps will be taken to exclude specific details relating to your specific work role, colleagues or department in order to ensure that your colleagues and research participants cannot be identified as a result of this research.

What are the possible benefits of taking part in this project?

The outcome of this project might possibly contribute to your professional development, as you would have access to the findings of the study if requested.

Who do I complain to if things go wrong?

If things go wrong, please do not hesitate to contact me or my research supervisory team, Professor Jim Stewart, Dr. Kirsten Stevens and Dr. Penny Ann-Cullen, at the email addresses provided below.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Your identity will remain anonymous throughout the course of this study and no reference will be made to you by name within my final thesis. All data will be kept securely using a portable memory device and e-files/recordings will be safe-locked (password protected). Written materials will be kept in a locked cabinet, your name will not be written on your transcripts and consent forms and data will be separated, so it is impossible to identify you. I will have sole access to all primary data and take responsibility for securely destroying data upon the completion of my project.

What will happen with the results of the study?

The results obtained from this study will form the basis for my PhD thesis. I also aim to develop and publish research papers for publication within relevant academic journals from the outcome of results obtained from this study.

Who has reviewed this study?

This study has been reviewed by my research supervisors; Professor Jim Stewart, Dr. Kirsten Stevens and Dr. Penny Ann-Cullen. It has also been submitted and approved by the University's Ethics Review System.

Further information/Key contact details of researcher and supervisor

Name of Researcher: Tarinabo Jennifer Okolai

Researcher's Email: okolait@coventry.ac.uk

Supervisors' Email:

Professor Jim Stewart: ab2860@coventry.ac.uk

Dr. Kirsten Stevens: bsx218@coventry.ac.uk

Dr. Penny Ann-Cullen: aa4240@coventry.ac.uk

Signature of researcher: *Jennifer Okolai*

Date: 26/04/13

11.1.2 INFORMED CONSENT SHEET

This is a research on the gender perception in managing organisational change. The purpose of this research is to investigate and explore the impact of such a perception and further investigate the extent of the linkage between gender and organisational change management, within organisations undergoing change or who have presently undergone change in the United Kingdom and Nigeria. The value of this research is to successfully contribute to the management of organisational change and proffer some gender-inclusive methodologies to its management.

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the participant information sheet for the above exercise and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

☐

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason.

☐☐

3. I understand that all the information I provide will be treated in confidence.

4. I understand that I also have the right to change my mind about participating in the exercise for a short period after the study has concluded.

☐

5. I agree to be recorded if required as part of the research project.

☐☐

6. I agree to take part in the research project.

Name of participant:

Signature of participant:

Date:

Name of Researcher: Tarinabo Jennifer Okolai

Researcher's Email: okolait@coventry.ac.uk

Signature of researcher: *Jennifer Tarinabo Okolai*

Date: 09/07/13

11.2 APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW BRIEFS

11.2.1 MAIN INTERVIEW BRIEF

11.2.1.1 *Interview Brief for Change Leaders*

Section 1. Organisation/Institute Background

- ⤴ Could you please tell me a brief history of this organisation/institute?
- ⤴ Could you please describe the current organisational structure of the company/institute?
- ⤴ What are the organisation/institute's goals and objectives?
- ⤴ How many people are currently employed in the company/institute?

Section 2. Biographical Background

- ⤴ Could you please confirm your age?
- ⤴ What is your position?
- ⤴ What are your main duties and responsibilities in this organisation?
- ⤴ And how long have you worked for this institution?

Section 3. Organisational Change Meaning and Undergone Changes

- ⤴ What does the term organisational change management (OCM) mean to you?
- ⤴ Has this organisation undergone any recent change?
- ⤴ If yes, could you please share your experiences of the introduced change(s) and your role in the management of the implemented change(s)?
- ⤴ From a gendered perspective, who initiated the mentioned changes?
- ⤴ Does the organisation/institute have change management department or trained personnel to manage the changes?

Section 4. Adopted Strategies in Managing the Implemented Changes

- ⤴ Can you tell me what you did to manage the introduced change(s)?

- ⤴ What were your major reasons/drivers/motivations for the adopted approaches/strategies?
- ⤴ Do you consider those approaches effective?
- ⤴ Can you please tell me the outcomes of your adopted approaches/strategies and the implemented change?
- ⤴ If given an opportunity in the future, do you think there is another way you would have handled it?

Section 5. Male and Female Organisational Change Leadership Preferences

- ⤴ From a personal experience and observation, do you do think the way you managed the stated change(s) varied from the way an opposite sex member would/will manage it?
- ⤴ If yes, what were the specific approaches adopted by male leaders to manage the specified change?
- ⤴ And what were the specific approaches adopted by female leaders to manage the specified change?
- ⤴ Which of the mentioned approaches adopted by the both sexes would you consider more effective?

Section 6. Gender Leadership Differences and Its Impact on OCM outcome

- ⤴ From your point of view, could there be any possible impact that gender leadership differences may have on organisational change outcome?
- ⤴ Have you ever considered some gender-inclusive methodologies in the management of organisational change?
- ⤴ What advice can you give to organisational change leaders who desire to achieve effective and successful management of change programmes in organisations?

-----END-----

11.2.1.2 Interview Brief for Change Recipients

Section 1. Organisation/Institute Background

- ⤴ Could you tell me a brief history of this organisation/institute?
- ⤴ What are the organisation/institute's goals and objectives?
- ⤴ How many people are currently employed in the company/institute?

Section 2. Biographical Background

- ⤴ Could you please confirm your age?
- ⤴ What is your position?
- ⤴ What are your main duties and responsibilities in this organisation?
- ⤴ And how long have you worked for this institution?

Section 3. Organisational Change Meaning and Undergone Changes

- ⤴ What does the term organisational change management (OCM) mean to you?
- ⤴ Has your organisation undergone any recent change?
- ⤴ If yes, could you please share your experiences of the introduced change(s) and how the changes were managed by the change leaders?
- ⤴ From a gendered perspective, who initiated the mentioned changes?
- ⤴ Does the organisation/institute have change management department or trained personnel that managed the changes?

Section 4. Adopted Strategies in Managing the Implemented Changes

- ⤴ What are/were the strategies and approaches adopted by the managers in managing the changes that occurred in the organisation?
- ⤴ Do you consider those approaches effective in managing the implemented changes?

⤴ Can you please tell me the outcomes of the adopted approaches/strategies and the implemented change?

Section 5. Male and Female Organisational Change Leadership Preferences

⤴ Can you please share with me your observation of how male and female leaders managed and led the changes implemented in the organisation?

⤴ What exactly were the approaches adopted by male leaders to manage the mentioned changes?

⤴ And what exactly were the approaches adopted by female leaders to manage the mentioned change?

⤴ Which of the mentioned approaches adopted by the both sexes would you consider more effective?

Section 6. Gender Leadership Differences and Its Impact on OCM outcome

⤴ From your point of view, could there be any possible impact that gender leadership differences may have on organisational change outcome?

⤴ What advice can you give to organisational change leaders who desire to achieve effective and successful management of change programmes in organisations?

-----END-----

11.2.2 INITIAL INTERVIEW BRIEF

11.2.2.1 *Initial Interview Brief for Change Recipients*

Section 1. Organisation/Institute Background

- ⤴ Could you tell me a brief history of this organisation/institute?
- ⤴ What are the organisation/institute's goals and objectives?
- ⤴ Do you have an idea of the number of employees currently employed in the company/institute?

Section 2. Biographical Background

- ⤴ Could you please confirm your age?
- ⤴ What is your position?
- ⤴ What are your main duties and responsibilities in this organisation?
- ⤴ And how long have you worked for this institution?

Section 3. Organisational Change Meaning and Undergone Changes

- ⤴ What does the term organisational change management (OCM) mean to you?
- ⤴ Has your organisation undergone any recent change?
- ⤴ If yes, could you please share your experiences of the introduced change(s) and how the changes were managed by the change leaders?
- ⤴ From a gendered perspective, who initiated the mentioned changes?
- ⤴ Does the organisation/institute have change management department or trained personnel to manage the changes?

Section 4. Adopted Strategies in Managing the Implemented Changes

- ⤴ What are/were the strategies and approaches adopted by the managers in managing the changes that occurred in the organisation?
- ⤴ Do you consider those approaches effective in managing the implemented changes?

⤴ Can you please tell me the outcomes of the adopted approaches/strategies and the implemented change?

Section 5. Male and Female Organisational Change Leadership Preferences

⤴ Can you please share with me your observation of how male and female leaders managed and led the changes implemented in the organisation?

⤴ What were the specific approaches adopted by the male and female leaders to manage the implemented change(s)? **(This was changed and split into two questions that addressed male and female leader's approaches separately, based on observations from the conducted pilot study)?**

⤴ Whose sexes' adopted strategy would you consider more effective? **(Also, this question was revamped after a preliminary study, because it was realised that respondents struggled to respond to this question due to difficulties in understanding the question).**

Section 6. Gender Leadership Differences and Its Impact on OCM outcome

⤴ From your point of view, could there be any possible impact that gender leadership differences may have on organisational change outcome?

⤴ What advice can you give to organisational change leaders who desire to achieve effective and successful management of change programmes in organisations?

-----END-----

11.3 APPENDIX 3: ETHICAL APPROVAL DETAILS

REGISTRY RESEARCH UNIT

ETHICS REVIEW FEEDBACK FORM

(Review feedback should be completed within ten working days)

Name of applicant: Jennifer, Tarinabo Okolai

Faculty/School/Department: [Business, Environment and Society] BES Strategy and Applied Management.....

Research project title: A GENDERED APPROACH TO ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE
MANAGEMENT: DIFFERENCES IN THE WAYS MEN AND WOMEN MANAGE ORGANISATIONAL
CHANGE IN Abuja, NIGERIA.

Comments by the reviewer

4. Evaluation of the ethics of the proposal:

Confirmed

5. Evaluation of the participant information sheet and consent form:

Confirmed

6. Recommendation:

(Please indicate as appropriate and advise on any conditions. If there any conditions, the applicant will be required to resubmit his/her application and this will be sent to the same reviewer).

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Approved - no conditions attached
<input type="checkbox"/>	Approved with minor conditions (no need to re-submit)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Conditional upon the following – please use additional sheets if necessary (please re-submit application)

	Rejected for the following reason(s) – please use other side if necessary
	Not required

Name of reviewer: Marylyn Carrigan.....

Date: 21/11/2012.....

11.4 APPENDIX 4: DIRECTOR OF STUDY'S FIELD STUDY APPROVAL LETTER

To Whom It May Concern 12 June 2013

Dear colleagues

This is to confirm that Miss Jennifer Tarinabo Okolai is a registered PhD student at Coventry University in the UK and is conducting a study under my supervision entitled 'Gendered approaches to organisational change management'. I am grateful for your support and cooperation in enabling Miss Okolai to conduct her field work. Please contact me if you have any questions and I will be pleased to help.

Professor Jim Stewart

Professor of Human Resource Development

Coventry Business School

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